

THE  
CRITICAL REVIEW.

For the Month of February, 1784.

*Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Vol. LXXIII. Part I. For the Year 1783. 4to. 7s. 6d. L. Davis.*

**T**HERE are few circumstances so interesting, or discoveries so surprising, in this part of the annual volume of the Society, as to induce us to pursue the several articles with minuteness. Instead of a particular account of the Georgium sidus in these Transactions, Mr. Herschel is contented with little more than a contest about its name; and the respectable observations of sir William Hamilton have been already published in every newspaper.—But we must attend to particulars.

Article I. A Letter from William Herschel, Esq. F. R. S.—Mr. Herschell, in this Letter, proposes that the new planet be called the Georgium sidus. He thinks it scarcely allowable, that we should have recourse to the heathen mythology for a name, which the era of the discovery would better supply. We have already proposed the name of Neptune, merely to preserve some consistency in the appellations of the planets, though the subject is of little consequence. We can however inform Mr. Herschell, that it is highly probable his own name will, in future ages, distinguish it; and he will have the honour of being the only mortal who associates with the gods. ‘Inter sidera sidus aureum.’

Article II. On the Diameter and Magnitude of the Georgium Sidus; with a Description of the dark and lucid Disk and Periphery Micrometers. By William Herschel, Esq. F. R. S.—This article is much more important. The ingenuity and simplicity of our author’s contrivances constantly engage our attention, and excite our admiration. In  
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the present instance, he used his lamp micrometers, formerly described; and imitated the size of the planet by lights placed behind oiled paper, fixed to circles of paste-board of different diameters. From various trials, with a due regard to every circumstance which could influence the appearances, Mr. Herschel found, that the diameter of the new planet could not 'well be less, nor much larger than about four seconds.' From this, compared with Mr. De La Lande's observations, he thinks that its real diameter must be between four or five times that of the earth. We need not suggest to our astronomical readers, the very remote situation of this planet, even from one with which, in consequence of its distance, we have hitherto little connection, viz. Saturn. This, while it elevates the mind with the amazing extent of a single, perhaps inconsiderable system, will fill it with astonishment, to perceive with what rigorous exactness we are able to trace the paths of its remotest attendant. We may add, though not in the present article, that its orbit is nearly circular; and that hitherto no satellites have been found to attend it. It is however probable, that if they had equalled in size those of Saturn, they would have been discovered by the powerful and accurate instruments employed in the search.

Article III. Conclusion of the Experiments and Observations concerning the attractive Powers of the Mineral Acids. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. F. R. S.—As we have declined entering into a detail of Mr. Kirwan's experiments, when they were less interesting, it is not easy to do it now they are more valuable. Chemical facts cannot be properly abridged; and the best analysis is, in such cases, a simple narration of the more important conclusions. We must be content with mentioning, that the observations on elective attractions are new, and apparently just. They solve, in a great degree, the confusion which different experiments, in different circumstances, have contributed to produce, and we should with pleasure see them extended to the various objects of this science.

Article IV. A Description of a Species of Sarcocoele of a most astonishing size in a Black Man in the Island of Senegal; with some Account of its being an endemial Disease in the Country of Galam. By J. P. Schotte, M. D.—This dreadful disease is almost unparalleled in the annals of medicine. The whole mass, Dr. Schotte thinks, must have been two feet and a half long, and eighteen inches in diameter. It seemed entirely fleshy; and ulcers formed, and were cured on it, as on any other part. When the organ affected is considered, these circumstances will appear astonishing; and it is more so, to find that there is a country in which it is endemic, attached



to greatness and dignity; perhaps to check the wishes of the ambitious, or curb the turbulence of the factious. Our author's account of the disorder is plain, and apparently faithful, though extraordinary. He is less satisfactory when he endeavours to trace the causes; but who can account, with accuracy, for endemic disorders? The swelling throat in the inhabitants of the Alps is equally inexplicable with the far-coccele of the Bambara nation. Each perhaps are connected with some peculiar circumstances of the stamina, which we talk of with facility, but whose nature we have not yet been able to comprehend.

Article V. A Description of a new Construction of Eyeglasses for such Telescopes as may be applied to Mathematical Instruments. By Mr. Ramsden.—The great errors of eyeglasses arise from their spherical figure, and from the different refrangibility of light. The manner in which they have been hitherto corrected is frequently inconvenient, when the telescope is used with a micrometer, or with any mathematical instrument; so that Mr. Ramsden has been well employed in investigating a different method. The great source of error arises from the latter circumstance, by which the object appears coloured: the other cause is more trifling. Sir Isaac Newton has observed, that a body which appears coloured when looked at through a prism, is more acromatic, in proportion to the vicinity of the body to the glass. Mr. Ramsden therefore thought, that by bringing a plano-convex glass near to the object, or rather the image formed by the object-glass, that the colours would be less apparent. It will however be obvious, that the rays of light coming from the lens will diverge so much as to occasion indistinct vision, unless again collected by another lens; but by the union of these two glasses, he has fully obtained the desired effect. He finds also, that by the same means he obviates, in a great degree, the error which arises from the spherical figure; but for his reasons we must refer to the diagram. The improvement chiefly consists in placing the lens near the object, instead of its usual place in the focus; and in correcting the aberrations by a plano-convex glass, instead of those of other figures. The contrivance is simple; but it does not, on that account, merit less of our attention and applause.

Article VI. Account of several Lunar Iris. By Marmaduke Tunstall, Esq. F. R. S.—These lunar iris were remarkable for their distinctness and duration. That which occurred on the 18th of October 1782, lasted near five hours.

Article VII. Account of an Earthquake. By John Lloyd, Esq.—This earthquake was observed in Wales on the

5th of October 1782; but attended with no peculiar circumstances to attract attention.

Article VIII. An Account of a new Eudiometer. By Mr. Cavendish, F. R. S.—The eudiometer contrived by the abbé Fontana was, in Mr. Cavendish's opinion, more accurate than the common instruments, because the added air rose slowly in the tube, and the whole might be shaken before the different airs came in contact. By this means the diminution was not only greater, but more sudden than in any other method, because the water in contact absorbed the acid. By Mr. Cavendish's improved apparatus, the acid is added in single bubbles, and the eudiometer is shaken, during the whole addition, so as to produce the former effect more completely: The diminution he also examines by weighing the air in water, which he thinks more accurate than the method of Mr. Saussure, who weighed it in air. The difference however appears to be very trifling.

The descriptions of the different methods of trial cannot be easily abridged. It is of more importance to observe, that the water used in the various experiments on the nature of air, greatly influences the results; so that there is little dependence on all those which have been hitherto tried. Indeed, from Mr. Cavendish's experiments, the air at Kensington and London, as well as the air in different weathers, tried on sixty different days, was not found to vary in any remarkable degree. Perhaps medicine may at last, with the rest of its unintelligible jargon, escape from that of different kinds of air; and rest only on heat and cold, moisture and dryness; probably, in a few instances, on its weight and elasticity. There certainly is a variety in this element; but we cannot trace them, except from facts; and are wholly unable to reason on them. This paper contains many useful cautions, in conducting experiments of this kind, which will be consulted with advantage by every practical philosopher in the work itself. Our author supports his character of an accurate and candid enquirer. He was one of our early guides in this subject; and he is almost the only one who has not forsaken it.

Article IX. Experiments upon the Resistance of the Air. By Richard Lovell Edgworth, Esq. F. R. S.—That the different sizes and shapes of plane surfaces varied the resistance which they experienced in motion from the air, is well known; but the present author has repeated an experiment of Mr. Robins, which shows that the same surface, in different situations, is resisted with a different force. If a parallelogram, with its longest side parallel to the horizon, is turned by a certain weight, it requires an additional weight, equal to



to  $\frac{1}{10}$  of the greatest resistance, to turn it when one of its shortest sides is placed downwards. There are some other experiments, which show that a similar variety is observed in other figures; and that the resistance does not increase in the same ratio with the surface, and that the same surface in a concave form, is more easily moved. Indeed we fully agree with Mr. Edgworth, that the subject requires farther investigation. The only practical use of these experiments is, that 'bellying or bunting sails' are less useful than those which are 'hauled taught.' Our author seems to think that the air is resisted differently in the different parts of a plane; so that while it stagnates in the middle, it is reflected in curves from the other portions.

Article X. An Answer to the Objections stated by M. De la Lande, in the Memoirs of the French Academy for the Year 1776, against the Solar Spots being Excavations in the luminous Matter of the Sun, together with a short Examination of the Views, ascertained by him upon that subject. By Alexander Wilson, M. D.—Dr. Wilson's defence is in many respects satisfactory; but we cannot abridge it, from our not having the objections before us, or the diagrams to explain the answers. His opinion was published in the Transactions for 1774, and was attacked in the French Memoirs for the year 1776, by M. De la Lande. There is much reason to think, that these philosophers have in some degree misunderstood each other; and that the spots are sometimes of different kinds.

Article XI. An Account of the Earthquakes which happened in Italy, from February to May, 1783. By Sir William Hamilton, Knight of the Bath, F.R.S.—This account is extremely valuable, both for its fidelity and elegance. Every thing is clear and natural; while what is really true in the exaggerated relations of folly, of terror, and superstition, are explained in a manner highly satisfactory. That the ground was sometimes removed, when connected with swamps, is not surprising: it appeared to have been removed in such spots; and where the course of rivers had been stopped by the removal, they must have formed a new channel, or been expanded in lakes. In other circumstances, the ground near a ravine, from the inequality of the resistance, was forced into the ravine itself, and sometimes nearly across it. In short, every element was so much confounded, that it reduced the affected spots almost to another chaos. Sir William however informs us, that there were no instances of any destruction by fire. Hot water was frequently talked of; but when the accounts were examined, there was no evidence of its heat. The motion was from below upward; and every circumstance which was the conse-

quence of this motion, is to be explained from the soil, from the situation, and from the different resistances of the adjoining masses. We have given this comprehensive account of the fatal disaster, because, as we have observed, it has been already detailed. We shall only reserve one part, for the sake of our philosophical readers, as they may chuse to have it in a more permanent state than that in which it has appeared.

— Before I take my leave, I will just sum up the result of my observations in Calabria and Sicily, and give you my reasons for believing that the present earthquakes are occasioned by the operation of a volcano, the seat of which seems to lye deep, either under the bottom of the sea, between the island of Stromboli and the coast of Calabria, or under the parts of the plain towards Oppido and Terra Nuova. If on a map of Italy, and with your compass on the scale of Italian miles, you were to measure off 22, and then fixing your central point in the city of Oppido (which appeared to me to be the spot on which the earthquake had exerted its greatest force) form a circle (the radii of which will be, as I just said, 22 miles) you will then include all the towns, villages, that have been utterly ruined, and the spots where the greatest mortality has happened, and where there have been the most visible alterations on the face of the earth. Then extend your compass on the same scale to 72 miles, preserving the same center, and form another circle, you will include the whole of the country that has any mark of having been affected by the earthquake. I plainly observed a gradation in the damage done to the buildings, as also in the degree of mortality, in proportion as the countries were more or less distant from this supposed center of the evil. One circumstance I particularly remarked, if two towns were situated at an equal distance from this center, the one on a hill, the other on the plain, or in a bottom, the latter had always suffered greatly more by the shocks of the earthquakes than the former; a sufficient proof to me of the cause coming from beneath, as this must naturally have been productive of such an effect. And I have reason to believe, that the bottom of the sea, being still nearer the volcanic cause, would be found (could it be seen) to have suffered even more than the plain itself; but (as you will find in most of the accounts of the earthquake that are in the press, and which are numerous) the philosophers, who do not easily abandon their ancient systems, make the present earthquakes to proceed from the high mountains of the Apennines that divide Calabria Ultra, such as the Monte Dejo, Monte Caulone, and Aspramonte; I would ask them this simple question, did the *Æolian* or Lipari islands (all which rose undoubtedly from the bottom of the sea by volcanic explosions at different, and perhaps very distant, periods) owe their birth to the Apennines in Calabria, or to veins of minerals in the bowels of the earth, and under the  
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bottom of the sea? Stromboli an active volcano, and probably the youngest of those islands, is not above 50 miles from the parts of Calabria that have been most affected by the late earthquakes. The vertical shocks, or, in other words, those whose impulse was from the bottom upwards, have been the most destructive to the unhappy towns in the plain; did they proceed from Monte Dejo, Monte Caulone, or Aspramonte? In short, the idea I have of the present local earthquakes is, that they have been caused by the same kind of matter that gave birth to the *Æolian* or *Lipari* islands; that perhaps an opening may have been made at the bottom of the sea, and most probably between Stromboli and Calabria Ultra (for from that quarter all agree, that the subterraneous noises seem to have proceeded); and that the foundation of a new island or volcano may have been laid, though it may be ages, which to nature are but moments, before it is completed, and appears above the surface of the sea. Nature is ever active; but her actions are, in general, carried on so very slowly, as scarcely to be perceived by mortal eye, or recorded in the very short space of what we call history, let it be ever so ancient. Perhaps too, the whole destruction I have been describing may have proceeded simply from the exhalations of confined vapours, generated by the fermentation of such minerals as produce volcanoes, which have escaped where they met with the least resistance, and must naturally, in a greater degree, have affected the plain than the high and more solid grounds around it.

If it was our business to affect the passions, we might raise commiseration by many little anecdotes here mentioned; but they would undoubtedly be misplaced. The following information deserves notice on a different account. The simplicity of the narration is only equalled by the interesting nature of the observation.

‘It had been remarked at Rosarno, and the same remark has been constantly repeated to me in every ruined town that I have visited, that the male dead were generally found under the ruins in the attitude of struggling against the danger; but that the female attitude was usually with hands clasped over their heads, as giving themselves up to despair, unless they had children near them; in which case they were always found clasping the children in their arms, or in some attitude which indicated their anxious care to protect them; a strong instance of the maternal tenderness of the sex!’

Article XII. Account of the Earthquake which happened March 28, 1783. In a Letter from Count Francesco Ippolito to Sir William Hamilton.—This is another narration, in Italian, of the same events; but is, in many respects, less faithful and interesting.—A translation of this paper is given in the Appendix.

Article XIII. Account of the Black Canker Caterpillar, which destroys the Turnips in Norfolk. By William Marshall, Esq.—This destructive little animal is probably not a native of our own country. It arrives, in swarms, from the adjacent continent, and is probably a species of the *tenthredo*; but from the description in this article, it is not easy to assign its trivial name. It would be more desirable to find a method of preventing its destructive ravages.

Article XIV. A Letter from Mr. Edward Nairne, F. R. S., containing an Account of Wire being shortened by Lightning.—The title says as much almost as the article. The globules, into which some of the wire was melted, did not effervesce with the different acids.

Article XV. An Account of Ambergrise. By Dr. Schwediawer.—Dr. Schwediawer has, in this article, examined with some attention, the origin and nature of ambergrise. As it abounds chiefly in the seas inhabited by the *spermaceti* whale, as it is often found both in the body and the excrements of this animal, mixed with the relics of its peculiar food, he concludes, that it is 'the præternaturally hardened dung or fæces' of the *physeter macrocephalus*. We think even his own relation will scarcely support his opinion. Though generally enveloped in the dung, and seeming to partake of its qualities, on washing, we find a very different substance. It yields too an acid, which is an objection not satisfactorily answered by our author. Mr. Crell indeed found an acid in fat: Mr. Schele found that the calculi of the bladder consisted of a concrete acid; and Dr. Hales had told us the same long before; since fixed air, in a concrete form, certainly deserves that title. Yet no one had ever discovered an acid in the fæces, unless supersaturated with a volatile alkali. It may be supposed therefore to be a disease; and our author's enquiries seem to confirm the idea; for the animals which afford it, are peculiarly torpid and sickly. We may next ask, if it is the effect of a vitiated secretion? In this view, the acidity is no objection; but the substance is not peculiar to one part of the canal, and is mixed with the excrements of the animal's food. The disease then, for we must still adhere to that opinion, is more probably owing to constipation from a præternatural substance swallowed; and the ambergrise, though frequently found in the whale, may be really, as most authors have supposed, a fossil.\* It is frequently found on the shores, and swimming in the sea; a circumstance not very favourable to an accidental disorder of one species of animals; a disorder

\* Linnaeus, in his Supplement, thinks with Rumphius and Rouelle, that it is a vegetable substance, probably from the *amyris ambrosiaca*. Sup. Lin. Fil. p. 217.

which



which prevents probably any passage through the intestines, since the whales who are affected with it, do not, like the healthy ones, void their feces when hooked. Ambergrise too, is found farther south than the spermaceti whales; as on the coasts of Africa and England. The remark also of Geoffroy, a diligent enquirer and a faithful reporter, if true, entirely destroys our author's opinion. He says, that besides other things, the beaks and talons of birds, honeycombs, with the honey still existing in them, are frequently found in this substance. (Geof. vol. i. p. 162.) On the whole, we think Dr. Schwediawer mistaken in his opinion; yet we readily own that his enquiries have materially elucidated the history of ambergrise, found in the bodies of the spermaceti whale. His mistake is only about its origin.

Among a few particulars added, concerning this peculiar animal, we are informed that 'it is not true that the substance which we so absurdly name spermaceti, and which perhaps might with much greater propriety be called *sebum physeteris*, is found in the ventricles of the brain, and in the cavity of the spinal marrow of the *physeter macrocephalus*. This fat substance, which is nothing but a kind of suet, undoubtedly formed for some particular purpose of that whale, is contained in a peculiar bony triangular cavity or trunk, which is lodged near the brain, and occupies nearly the whole upper part of the head. This trunk has no communication with the brain, but is entirely separated from it by its bony laminae. The brain, as in all other fishes, is very small in comparison with the size of the whale, and lies directly behind the eyes.

'In order to know whether the trunk in which the spermaceti is lodged had any connection with the brain of the whale, one of the above mentioned gentlemen had the curiosity to lance that trunk, which in its upper part is only covered with the skin, he found the whale not in the least affected by this; but on the brain being lanced, the same whale died immediately.'

Article XVI. Extract of a Register of the Barometer, Thermometer, and Rain, kept at Lyndon, in Rutland, 1782. By Thomas Barker, Esq.—There is little interesting in this article. The greatest heat  $82^{\circ}$ , was very transitory; the least  $21\frac{1}{2}$ , equally so. During this severe season, we observed a thermometer, not exposed to a current of air, so low as  $10^{\circ}$ , during the greater part of two days. We have heard of still greater cold, but the instruments were probably not exact. The rain, from this register, at Selborn in Hampshire, was for the year 1782, 50, 26. The wet spring and summer were universally complained of; but it was attended with the most beneficial consequences.

sequences. The dryness and heat of the preceding summer had cherished a vast variety of insects, which threatened almost an universal devastation. These have since, in a great measure, disappeared.

The uncommon circle round the moon has been frequently observed. When the moon passed under a light cloud, it seemed surrounded by a double circle. The outer one was slightly tinged with the colours of the rainbow.

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*Reports of Cases determined in the several Courts of Westminster Hall, from 1746, to 1779. Taken and compiled by the Hon. Sir William Blackstone, late one of the Judges of his Majesty's Court of Common Pleas. Published, according to the Direction in his Will, from the Original Manuscripts, by his Executors; with a Preface, containing Memoirs of his Life. Folio. 2 Vols. 3l. 3s. Cadell.*

**I**F there is any kind of writing peculiarly dry and uninteresting, if any volume where a contest will continually arise between duty and inclination, it may be found in those collections of separate detached facts, which really form the most useful and instructive parts of every science. The human mind is unwilling to acquire knowledge in the only way which can render it solid and permanent; and, instead of rising from separate facts to general principles, at once assumes a system; and, like the tyrant of antiquity, extends or mutilates what will not conform to it. Professional language adds to the difficulty, but it is unavoidable: in light discussions, where precision is unnecessary, technical terms are ridiculous; in the more strict professional ones, these terms are necessary; and, though they add difficulties to those which already overwhelm the student, though they shut the door of science against an uninitiated reader, yet they must be retained, on account of their accuracy.

This apology will, we hope, serve to excuse any discussions on the subject which occupies the bulk of these volumes. The language of the law will afford little entertainment; and the matter will scarcely admit of criticism. The name of the author will probably establish their credit; though sir William Blackstone's abilities may seem to have been misemployed, in what is little more than transcribing, yet those who are acquainted with the changes, which a slight variation may occasion, will think that attention only must be inadequate to the task.

The life of the author is given with all the warmth which affection can inspire; with all the enthusiasm which respect  
can



can dictate, by Mr. Clitherow, the brother of Lady Blackstone. Time, however, appreciates with precision every character. The judgment rather than the feelings will then decide; and it is then only that we can speak of men as they are. As the events of his life will be shortly detailed in another article, we shall at present endeavour to anticipate future times, and assume the guise of a critic of the nineteenth century, who may endeavour to delineate the character of sir William Blackstone, with candour and impartiality.

The laws of England, which excited the admiration and envy of every neighbouring nation, were much confused by their multiplicity, and obscured by their intricacy. The faint rays of method had begun to diminish this 'visible darkness;' but they only discovered the immensity of the task, and the very small progress hitherto made in it. It was reserved for sir William Blackstone to separate these confused and discordant atoms; and to display, in the fullest light, this venerable pile, which the courage and the firmness of our ancestors had founded and preserved. He was certainly an elegant scholar, and an exact lawyer; an intelligent antiquary, and an active citizen. These are merits which envy has not yet been able to destroy; and what is more fatal, the injudicious praises of partial friends have not diminished. To him we owe the Commentaries on the Laws of England; a work at once general and comprehensive, useful and entertaining. It is only repeating the trite commendations of his days to say, that he has rescued the laws of Britain from the obscurity of pedants, and the dust of antiquity; for his whole life seems to have been employed in bringing many of the more abstruse parts of science within the comprehension of every attentive and intelligent reader.—If we look at him through the medium of his works, and it is now our only resource, we shall find his ideas clear and exact, his language elegant and perspicuous. We can scarcely observe the brilliancies of genius, even in his lighter compositions; and the limits of science have not been extended by his labours. His scientific acquisitions, though detailed with fondness by the partial exuberances of private friendship, or the flattering excesses of affection, seem to have been little more than the general knowledge which usually distinguished the more liberal professions. His classical attainments were probably equalled by his cotemporaries; and his mathematical ones excelled. The real mathematician will smile, when he is told by his relation and panegyrist, of his great advances in this science; and that he relieved the dryness of the study by applying it to architecture. We may perhaps conclude, that the advances of the judge and of his biographer,

grapher, in the purer mathematics, must have been inconsiderable. Sir William, as a senator was undistinguished; as a counsel, probably careful and exact; but, as a pleader, dry and uninteresting. It was alleged, at that time, that his decisions as a judge, and his opinions as a senator, were not entirely consistent with those of the author of the Commentaries; or suitable to the high opinion which was entertained of him from his publications. Popular opinion however seldom reaches the true standard, 'est ubi peccant;' and it is unfair to appreciate merit by partial representations, or unjustifiable opinions. His disposition was certainly irritable; and the mind which comprehends with clearness in solitude, cannot always distinguish, when ruffled by the disorders of a crowd, or the distractions of a court. On the whole, we look on him as an useful and intelligent compiler, a scientific lawyer, and an elegant scholar.

We have thus endeavoured to delineate the character of this respectable judge, with clearness and fidelity. If we have not deviated into panegyric, we have allowed him excellencies sufficient to satisfy his more candid admirers. The present volumes of Reports cannot add to his merits, except from the care and exactness with which they are taken. It is necessary however to inform the reader, in the editor's own language,

'That this work is the genuine offspring of Mr. justice Blackstone's pen, and compiled intirely by himself from his own notes (except in one instance) there can be no doubt. It is contained in five large note books, all written with his own hand; and prepared for the press even to an Index, and a Table of Matters. These he still continued to carry on, as he added in each vacation what he had collected in the preceding term. The work reaches down to the end of Michaelmas term 1779, the last in which he regularly attended his court; his illness confining him at home the greatest part of Hilary term 1780. And as there is no doubt of its being genuine, neither can there be any of his intention that it should be published; for by a clause in his will he directs, "That his manuscript Reports of Cases determined in Westminster-Hall, taken by himself, and contained in several large note books, be published after his decease.—And that the produce thereof be carried to, and considered as part of his personal estate."

'This last part of the clause the editor here inserts as an excuse for not making any presents of the work; which he does not think himself justified in doing, as trustee for the author's children, to whose emolument the profits are specifically directed to be applied.

'The reader must not expect in the first volume a regular series of reports of the determinations of any one court, or without breaks and interruptions, in respect to time.

'They



‘ They seem to be only such as he had selected, out of many, from his rough notes, either as being of a more interesting nature, or containing some essential point of law or practice, or perhaps, such only (particularly for the first few years) as he had taken the most accurate notes of. Far the greatest part of those contained in the first volume, are of the court of king’s bench; but there are some of the courts of chancery, exchequer, and exchequer-chamber, on appeal.

‘ They begin with Michaelmas term 1746, in which he was called to the bar, and there are some of every term, except two, to Michaelmas 1750, from whence there is an interval to Michaelmas 1756, without one; the reason of this, most probably, is, that during that period he resided chiefly at Oxford, and had much of his time taken up in composing his lectures, which he began to read in 1753, and in preparing for which he had been for some years before principally employed. This accounts for his want of leisure to revise such rough notes as he might have taken during that period, and to fit them for publication, while they are fresh in his memory

‘ In the three following years he attended the bar only in Michaelmas and Hilary terms, on account of his lectures, consequently there are, among these Reports, none of the Easter and Trinity terms of those years, but from thence they continue in a regular series, except one term, when he was indisposed, and the two terms immediately preceding his being promoted to the bench, when he attended the court of Exchequer only. Which circumstances sufficiently evince that these Reports were all (except one) taken by himself. That one, is of the arguments of sir Thomas Clarke, master of the rolls, lord Mansfield, chief justice of the king’s bench, and the lord keeper Henley; delivered in the court of chancery, in Hilary term 1759, on determining the interesting cause of *Burgeis and Wheate*; and which, as appears by a remark subjoined to it, was communicated to him by that great and able lawyer, Mr. Fazakerly; but was all transcribed in his own hand. The editor hopes the arguments are reported correctly, but as they are only a copy, probably from a copy made by a clerk, it is possible there may be some errors in them, which the candid reader will excuse; and lament with him, that by the dreadful conflagration at the house of the noble lord above mentioned in June last [1780] a correct note of that argument was lost, among his other very valuable manuscripts, which his lordship had in the most obliging manner given permission to the editor to examine sir William Blackstone’s note book with, and correct any errors that might be found in it.’ —

‘ Fortunately for those whose interest is concerned in this publication, and (it may perhaps be added without impropriety) for the public too, the manuscript note book containing this report escaped the same fate. It was delivered a few days before

before by the editor to Mr. Justice Ashurst, to communicate to Lord Mansfield, and happily had not been sent to him.

‘The state the editor found this work in, greatly alleviated the trouble attending the publication; but as he had reason to think, the learned judge had not given it the last revisal he intended, he has thought it his duty, before he made it public, to read the whole over with the utmost attention, and to correct any literal errors or omissions, which the most accurate writer may be liable to.’

‘It has afterwards gone through a second revisal by a gentleman of the profession, who, at the editor’s request, undertook to examine the quotations from Reports, and other authors, in order to give to the world as complete a copy as possible, and that nothing might appear throughout unworthy the compiler.’

‘How far he has succeeded in that attempt, the editor must leave to the determination of the candid reader.’ —

‘Whatever errors may be found in the publication, he takes the demerit upon himself, hoping that the merit of the work will atone for any defects on his part; and that due allowance will be made for the editor’s total ignorance, till now, of the business of publication; a task he did not undertake as a volunteer, or as thinking himself peculiarly qualified for, but as being called upon to engage in it, not only as a labour of friendship, but as a duty incumbent on him, as executor to the author, and guardian of his infant children.’

*The Biographical History of Sir William Blackstone, late one of the Justices of both Benches: A Name, as celebrated at the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, as in Westminster-Hall. And a Catalogue of all Sir William Blackstone’s Works, Manuscript, as well as printed. With a Nomenclature of Westminster-Hall. The whole illustrated with Notes, Observations, and References. Also, a Preface and Index to each Part. By a Gentleman of Lincoln’s Inn. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Bew.*

**T**HE present work, as far as it contains the life of sir William Blackstone, is principally taken from the Memoirs prefixed to the Reports, published by Mr. Clitherow: the alterations and additions are trifling and insignificant.—Though the author is much indebted to Mr. Clitherow, he is perpetually criticising the minute errors of composition, which, in the Memoirs, are candidly apologized for, by Mr. Clitherow’s not being accustomed to that employment.

In the introduction, our biographer proceeds with pomp and dignity; and, if he had presented the most important work to the public, he could not have announced it with a greater parade. But we shall transcribe his own words.

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‘ An author, I believe, seldom considers how much he is obliged to the first purchasers of his works, in their so honourably relying on his veracity and knowledge, in respect to the promises made them in the title-page of his performance, and as to what they may expect from the publication; for they venture not only their money, but also their time, which is still more precious, especially to the students in the liberal professions.

‘ Therefore every conscientious writer ought to consider this public generosity, and be always so far actuated with gratitude towards them, as never to presume to publish any tractate, without a sincere belief, that it will either improve or amuse the reader: but indeed, every production of the press ought to tend, in some degree, to both; and if the treatise be of the scientific kind, the assertions of the writer ought to be vouched and supported by approved and many authorities, that the learned may have as much reason to commend the diffidence of the compiler, as his judgment; and a valuable work will give candid readers frequent opportunities of doing both, to the honour of the well-read and well-informed writer, for no other ought to dare obtrude himself on the public.

‘ Such are the qualifications that an able author ought to be endowed with, and such are the motives also that ought to induce him to lay claim to literary applause; for otherwise it will be impossible for him to do his duty to the republic of letters, in that character.

‘ The biographer of the late sir William Blackstone, of most respectable memory, humbly presumes to flatter himself, that all readers, but more especially the honourable students of the laws of England, will find him studiously labouring to reach the wished-for goal of general approbation, on their perusal of the following sheets; and further, that his exordium will not prove *vox, et præterea nihil.*’

He boasts indeed that he has lived with great men; and in this boast he is well founded: but he shares the advantage with Bavius and Mævius, with Curl and Dennis; for it is only meant that he has lived in the eighteenth century, with Yates, Gould, and Thurlow. The remainder of the preface has very little relation to sir William Blackstone: it consists of compliments to his own ability; satyrical remarks on Mr. Clitherow; and much adventitious matter, with many ill-natured, unjust reflections on the late D. Garrick, T. Davies, &c.

— We shall not enlarge on it; we wish to spare our readers the disgust, which we so severely felt in the perusal.

The life of sir William Blackstone is, like that of every other scholar, little varied by uncommon events, and seldom relieved by splendid accidents. He was the youngest son of a silkman, who died before he was born. His education was under-

undertaken by his uncle, begun at the Charter-house, and finished at Oxford. That his advances in learning were distinguished in his early years, is probable; and in his maturer age, he seems to have been the ornament of his college. At the age of eighteen, he was entered at the Middle Temple; and his succeeding years seem to have been filled by a contention between the dictates of prudence, and the seducing arguments of inclination. Literary retirement was probably his choice, but the study of the law was destined to be the source of his future honours and advantages. His first success was however so inconsiderable, that at the age of thirty he seems to have quitted Westminster-Hall in disgust; and having long had in view his Commentaries on the Laws of England, about that time he delivered them to a crowded audience. He then resided entirely at Oxford, continuing only to practise as a provincial counsel, and retaining his honorary employment of recorder of the borough of Wallingford. On the 20th of October, 1758, he was elected first Vinerian professor of the common law; and on the 25th of the same month, at the age of 38, he read his first introductory lecture. This is the era of his dawning greatness. His lectures were honoured with universal approbation; and he was successively appointed solicitor-general to the queen; elected member of parliament; a justice of the king's bench and of the common pleas. The lesser accidents of his retired life, we have here omitted: that he was appointed bursar of his college; that he recovered a dormant legacy, or established the interior police of a college, are circumstances which may occur in every life; they are too common to deserve particular attention.

We have now concisely followed our editor, in the more material circumstances of the judge's life, which are contained within forty pages of this bulky volume. It required some ingenuity to add to the scanty materials; and in this respect he deserves commendation. The first effort is to tell the story again; but this is trite and vulgar, and little consonant to the confident eulogium on himself, which swelled the bulk of the preface. He has therefore given 'A Chronological Table of Sir William Blackstone's universal, honorary, and lucrative Characters, Employments, and Promotions at Oxford and in Westminster-Hall: containing Sir William's gradual Rise, from a posthumous Orphan, to the Dignity and high Station he at last attained, and from that Time to his Decease; together with References to those Passages in this "History," that support the Authenticity of all the ensuing Preferments.' This table is enriched with notes. The most important of these is, that it was Mr. Malone who had communicated



municated fir William's notes on Shakspeare to the public, not Mr. Steevens, as the memorialist had falsely, wickedly, and traiterously observed. Some trifling stories and remarks on the employment of the judge, after he had attained his high office, fill a space almost equal to the former events. It is only worth remarking, that fir William died in February, 1780, at the age of 57, of a dropsy in his chest.

The next effort is to delineate the character of Sir William Blackstone; and this he has done at some length.—It is impossible for us to pursue him in this walk, for a very plain reason, that after all our pains and labour, we are unable to understand the character here given. It is rather calculated to criticise the memorialist, Mr. Clitherow, than to convey an adequate idea of his merits. One thing we can very well understand; it is indeed detailed at great length; that Mr. Clitherow has incurred the author's displeasure, for not making presents of the Reports, in which his Memoirs are printed. Hence Mr. Clitherow's errors, as an editor and a composer. The judge had directed that these Reports should be considered as part of his personal estate; and Mr. Clitherow very properly thought that he ought not to give what was not his own.

The rest of this volume consists of a Catalogue of the Works of fir William. It contains, entire, the Lawyer's Farewel to his Muse; Verses on the Death of Frederic Prince of Wales, Father to his present Majesty, which had been attributed to Mr. Clitherow; a Description of an Antique Seal; and the Discussion of the Lyttelton Roll. These pieces are well known, except the last, of which we shall give a short account. The deans of Exeter seem to have been famous for defending bad causes. The Rowleian controversy has reflected as little honour on Dr. Milles, as the Lyttelton roll did on his predecessor. When Dr. Blackstone was compiling his History of Magna Charta, he was favoured with a curious, and seemingly cotemporary roll, by Dr. Lyttelton, which formerly belonged to the abbey of Hales Owen, in Shropshire; but as it had not the seal appended, Dr. Blackstone did not consider it as an original, and therefore declined using it. Dr. Lyttelton drew up his reasons in defence of the originality of his roll, and Dr. Blackstone produced his answer. The society had however decided on hearing the first part of the evidence, and they were either not convinced, or not disposed to retract their opinion; Dr. Blackstone's answer was therefore suppressed. We shall beg leave to give it entire, as a valuable curiosity, and by much the best part of the present work.

“ On June 8, 1761, the right rev. and very learned the bishop of Carlisle (then dean of Exeter) communicated to the society a vindication of the authenticity of a parchment roll; which belonged formerly to the abbey of Hales Owen, and contains the great charter and charter of the forest of 9 Hen. III. And as this was communicated to Mr. Blackstone, when he was preparing his edition of those charters in quarto, which was published at Oxford, A. D. 1759, his lordship infers, that the various readings of this roll ought to have been inserted in that edition; as Mr. Blackstone was mistaken in supposing it to be only a cotemporary copy, and not an original.

“ After so serious an appeal to the learned in antiquities, Mr. Blackstone would think himself wanting in that respect which he owes to the society and his lordship, if he did not either own and correct his mistake in the octavo edition which is now preparing for press, or submit to the society's judgment the reasons at large upon which his suspicions are founded. He hath rather chosen, perhaps injudiciously, the latter.

“ His lordship, to prove the authenticity of the roll, has vouched the opinions of the late Mr. Folkes, of two of the judges, and of this learned body in its favour. So far as authority can or ought to extend, in deciding a point of learning, Mr. Blackstone acknowledges this argument to be quite unanswerable: but he has been taught that no authority, however weighty, should put a stop to the spirit of enquiry; and he believes that a closer examination of the instrument in question, than is usual upon public exhibitions, might have furnished a few observations tending to a contrary opinion.

“ His lordship is pleased to suggest, that the sole objection which is made by Mr. Blackstone to the roll's authenticity, is because the great seal is not now appendant to it. Mr. Blackstone made no such objection: he declared his opinion that this roll never had passed the great seal, but did not subjoin any reasons; and the contents of this paper will shew that he had other and stronger objections. Nor could he indeed, consistently with himself, have relied on so trifling an argument; having cited, in his introductory discourse, many charters as clearly authentic, to which no seal is now remaining.

“ His lordship observes, that the method of promulgating ancient statutes was not only to transmit them to the sheriffs of counties, but also to cathedrals, and the great religious houses;—that most of the original great charters now extant belonged to cathedrals or abbeys;—and that the abbey of Hales Owen had as fair a title, as any, to be honoured with an original great charter, since that convent was founded by Peter de Rupibus, bishop of Winchester, and chief justice of England, in the 9th of Hen. III.—the very year when this roll bears date.

“ The method of promulgating statutes, by transmitting them to religious houses, is perfectly new to Mr. Blackstone.

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He knows it was usual to send them to the sheriffs, to be proclaimed in their county courts; and he is aware that, by the statute entitled *Confirmatio Cartarum*, 25 Edw. I. the charters of Hen. III. are commanded to be sent to all cathedrals, and read twice a year to the people: which fairly accounts for the charters that were found in cathedral churches. And, as for those that have been discovered in one or two monasteries, they were probably deposited there for safe custody by some special concurrence of circumstances; as was manifestly the case at Lacock, whose foundress's husband, the earl of Salisbury, was sheriff of Wiltshire in the 9 of Hen. III. and as such, had possession of the charter there found, which is endorsed as belonging not to the monastery of Lacock, but to the county of Wilts at large, *ex deposito militum Wiltescire*.

“ The abbey of Hales Owen was therefore not entitled to the custody of an original charter, merely upon the general footing of being a great religious house; nor can Mr. Blackstone allow the particular probability of transmitting an original to that convent on account of the relation it bore to Peter de Rupibus, as its founder. In the first place he apprehends, that in the 9th of Hen. III. the date of the present great charter, this prelate was not chief justiciary, but Hubert de Burgh, who witnesses the charter as such; as appears from all the originals, and even from the Hales Owen roll. Nor, according to Spelman and Dugdale, was he ever chief justice in the reign of king Hen. III. but only, for a very short time, in the reign of king John; and during that period, by his mal-administration in his office, (according to Ralph de Coggeshale and the annals of Waverley) was one cause of the barons' insurrection. And, since some clauses of king John's charter were personally pointed at him, and others of king John's and king Henry's were intended to curb the exorbitant power of his office, he was not probably over anxious to perpetuate those memorials of his own misconduct.

“ His lordship observes that the two charters are quite complete on the roll; and yet another skin appears evidently to have been sewed to the bottom of it, the threads still remaining at this day; and then asks, of what possible use could another skin of parchment be, but only to contain the great seal? And this circumstance is relied on as a most cogent reason, in favour of the roll's authenticity. But herein Mr. Blackstone has the misfortune to differ with his lordship, and to think it a decisive proof, or at least a very violent presumption, that this roll never passed the great seal. For he will venture to affirm, and appeal to the experience of the society, that no instance can be shewn of a slip of parchment being tacked on to another skin, merely to hold the label of the great or any other seal; (which might be then taken off at pleasure, and fastened by the same operation to another instrument;) but the label of the

the seal always passes through the substance of the skin, whose authority it is meant to attest.

“ He will not dwell on the very singular circumstance, that two distinct charters should be written on one roll of parchment, in order to save the king’s wax, by sealing them with a single seal.

“ But he cannot help observing how uncommonly the charter of the forest concludes, supposing it an original instrument, viz. “ *testibus supra nominatis*,” without mentioning either names, time, or place. This is usual enough in copies, but every original and every inspecimus of this charter, which Mr. Blackstone hath hitherto seen, have the date at full length, and the names of the witnesses subjoined; who though so much alike as might easily mislead a copyist, are by no means numerically the same with those which are set to the great charter; since the bishop of Salisbury is a witness to one and not to the other of those instruments.

“ But then it is asked of what possible use could another skin of parchment be? a question that admits of no very difficult solution. The truth of the matter seems to be, that the roll in dispute is only part of a statute roll begun (as the handwriting shews) in the reign of king Henry III. and intended to contain a collection of acts of parliament, with the two famous charters at their head, and to be carried on from time to time, by sewing fresh parchment at the bottom when the upper part was full. Such rolls, of a considerable length, continued down in different hand-writings, were frequent in religious houses; and very many of them are preserved in the British Museum, the Bodleian, and other public libraries.

“ There yet remains another principal reason that induced Mr. Blackstone to consider the roll as copied, viz. its extreme inaccuracy, which, in many places, totally obscures the sense. A few specimens of which are the following. In ch. 8. of the great charter, for “ *aut reddere nolit cum possit*,” the roll reads “ *vel reddiderit nolit cum possit*.” In ch. 26. for “ *brevi inquisitionis*,” the roll has it “ *brevi adquisitionis*.” In ch. 36. for “ *Si quis—super hoc convincatur*,” the roll reads “ *Si quis—super hoc commoveatur*.” In the attestation, for the earl of “ *Hertford*,” the roll reads “ the earl of *Hereford*,” though another earl of Hereford appears within five names afterwards. In the charter of the forest, ch. 14, instead of “ *chiminagium*,” or way-money, (a term well known in the forest-law) the roll substitutes “ *chuignagium*,” more than once, a word without any meaning at all. These capital mistakes, among others, the effect not of haste but of absolute ignorance in the transcriber, occasioned the editor of the charters to deem with less reverence of this roll, than he finds was expected of him. But though he could not be induced to believe it an original, yet he thought it in many respects curious; and cautiously



tiously avoided exposing its blemishes to view, till forced to this public explanation."

Ingenuity herself would now have been at a loss to have furnished other materials from sir William Blackstone; but his ingenious cotemporaries so far dazzled the eyes of the author, that he thought a little of their light might be reflected on him also. He was sensible of his own darkness and obscurity; the nomenclature therefore was formed, which consists only of a catalogue of the chancellors, judges, serjeants, and king's counsel, during the period of sir William Blackstone.—We are not disposed to examine this part with a critical accuracy; and must therefore bid this ingenious Gentleman of *Lincoln's Inn*, adieu.

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*Essays on Shakspeare's Dramatic Characters of Richard the Third, King Lear, and Timon of Athens. To which are added, an Essay on the Faults of Shakspeare; and additional Observations on the Character of Hamlet. By Mr. Richardson, Professor of Humanity in the University of Glasgow. Small Octavo. 3s. Murray.*

IN our Thirty-ninth Volume we considered, at some length, the Analysis of Shakspeare's Characters. The present Essay of the same author, though under a different title, is a continuation of the same design; but as we then only explained his intentions, we may now be permitted to examine them. His purpose in the first was to make poetry subservient to philosophy, and to employ it in tracing the principles of human conduct. With this laudable design, he assumed the characters in the different dramas of Shakspeare as real personages, or rather as persons clothed in a determined character by a great master of human nature. These are analysed from the circumstances and situations in which they appear; so that they will, at least, contribute to elucidate doubtful passages, or explain apparent inconsistencies. But yet we may be allowed to doubt how far the nature of the human mind itself is rendered less intricate; how far its mazes are traced to their source; or its errors unravelled by the contemplation of fictitious personages. The malignity of Richard, the towering ambition of Wolsey, and the heroism of the Fifth Henry, for a time disguised by the mask of idleness and dissipation, may have their foundation in nature; but the artful villainy of Iago, the distrustful jealousy of Othello, the chaste tenderness of Imogen, and the inexperienced love-sick Juliet, are not the pictures of individuals. The likeness is more general; they represent something more

remote and abstracted than a single person can afford. They are scarcely discriminated from the herd of those which resemble them, by a single appropriated feature. If then we examine our author's attempts with this view, we shall contemplate in him a pleasing, and perhaps a philosophic commentator on Shakspeare; but we shall not perceive his advances in the history of the human mind. Nor will this be surprising, for he analyses not the real character; he does not trace the varied emotions which nature dictates; he examines a copy, frequently accurate, and always animated, but still a representation. If it be alleged that this copy, in other situations, may be original; we may reply that it will, in that case, have such distinguishing marks, that the observations on the abstract will with difficulty apply to the individual. We shall readily own, that these characters may be a text which will lead us to examine the efforts of the mind, in similar situations; or they may serve to instruct, by inducing us to examine how far the representations of the poet resemble the passions of men. But the same purpose may be equally answered by Almanzor or Almahide. Indeed, Shakspeare seems less fit for this purpose than many other authors; for his characters, except in his more finished plays, are by no means uniformly supported; and he sometimes seems to forget in the fifth act, what he had intended in the first. We think both Hamlet and Polonius striking examples of this inconsistency; and the Florentine, 'a fellow almost damned in a fair wife,' in the original sketch, was probably intended for a married man. But, having thus stated what is in our opinion to be expected from a work of this kind, we shall attend to the execution.

The present Essay, like the former Analysis, is distinguished by the acuteness of its remarks, and the elegance of its language. It explains the nature of select characters of the great dramatist, which the inattention of some readers, and the dullness of others, might not have observed. If they are not always strictly natural, yet the address of our author obviates apparent inconsistencies, and endeavours to show that they are such as nature may have produced in particular circumstances and situations. But on this subject we have already given our opinion; and we must at the same time own, that we find no discoveries relative to the interesting, but fugitive object of his researches. The general principles which regulate the affections, the incidental ones which excite more violent emotions, and raise them even to the turbulence of passion, are accurately applied, though without remarking new associations, or extending the influence of those already known.

Mr.



Mr. Richardson supposes, that the pleasure we enjoy from the contemplation of the character of Richard III. 'is produced by those emotions which arise in the mind, on beholding great intellectual ability employed for inhuman and perfidious purposes.' He has laboured with great attention to reconcile the pleasure which we receive from the representation, with the indignation which every good mind must feel from the contemplation of the character. The result has been already mentioned; and the pleasure is deduced from the great abilities employed, and the various means adapted to different characters. If our author has failed, in this account, his error arises from considering only a particular instance. An able critic, who has examined the subject more generally, finds the mind interested sometimes by painful, sometimes by even horrible images. If the source be not at once so disgusting as to disable the spectator from exerting his attention, the various miseries of mankind, and the most pernicious instruments, have engaged it. The whole then, can only meet in one very distant point, viz. in that employment and even agitation of the mind, which is generally preferred to vacancy and inactivity. The mental taste is, in that respect, like the corporeal: the flavour is of less consequence than the poignancy. In his limited view of the subject, our author has in some degree succeeded: independently of this general principle, the villainy of Richard is adorned with the charm of intrepidity; and his perfidy by the most consummate address. We have met with few more finished pieces of criticism than the explanation of his conduct with lady Anne; yet we cannot select it without mutilation. A less exceptionable passage is his elucidation of the character and conduct of Buckingham.

'This accomplice possesses some talents, and considerable discernment of human nature; his passions are ardent; he has little zeal for the public welfare, or the interests of virtue or religion; yet, to a certain degree, he possesses humanity and a sense of duty. He is moved with the love of power and of wealth. He is susceptible, perhaps, of envy against those who arise to such pre-eminence as he thinks might have suited his own talents and condition. Possessing some political abilities, or at least possessing that cunning, that power of subtle contrivance, and that habit of activity, which sometimes pass for political abilities, and which, imposing upon those who possess them, make them fancy themselves endowed with the powers of distinguished statesmen; he values himself for his talents, and is desirous of displaying them. Indeed, this seems to be the most striking feature in his character; and the desire of exhibiting his skill and dexterity, appears to be the foremost of his active principles. Such a person is Buckingham; and

the conduct of Richard is perfectly consonant. Having too much penetration, or too little regard to the public weal, to be blindfolded or imposed upon like the mayor, Richard treats him with apparent confidence. Moved, perhaps, with envy against the kindred of the queen, or the hope of pre-eminence in consequence of their ruin, he concurs in the accomplishment of their destruction, and in assisting the usurper to attain his unlawful preferment. But above all, excessively vain of his talents, Richard borrows aid from his counsels, and not only uses him as the tool of his designs, but seems to share with him in the glory of their success. Knowing, too, that his sense of virtue is faint, or of little power, and that the secret exultation and triumph for over-reaching their adversaries, will afford him pleasure sufficient to counterbalance the pain that may arise in his breast from the perpetration of guilt, he makes him, in a certain degree, the confident of his crimes. It is also to be remarked, that Buckingham, elated with the hope of reward, and elated still more with vanity in the display of his talents, appears more active than the usurper himself: more inventive in the contrivance of expedients, and more alert in their execution. There are many such persons, the instruments of designing men: persons of some ability, of less virtue, who derive consequence to themselves, by fancying they are privy to the vices or designs of men whom they respect, and who are lifted with triumph in the fulfilment of crafty projects. Richard, however, sees the slightness of Buckingham's mind, and reveals no more of his projects and vices than he reckons expedient for the accomplishment of his purpose: for, as some men, when at variance, so restrain their resentments as to leave room for future reconciliation and friendship; so Richard manages his seeming friendships, as to leave room, without the hazard of material injury to himself, for future hatred and animosity. A rupture of course ensues, and in a manner perfectly compatible with both of their characters. Richard wishes for the death of his brother Edward's children; and that his friend should on this, as on former occasions, partake of the shame or the glory. But here the ambition or envy of Buckingham had no particular concern; nor was there any great ability requisite for the assassination of two destitute infants. Thus his humanity and sense of duty, feeble as they were when exposed to stronger principles, not altogether extinguished, were left to work untroubled; and consequently would suggest hesitation. They might be aided in their operation by the insatiate desire of reward for former services, not gratified according to promise or expectation; and, by the same invidious disposition, transferred from the ruined kindred of the queen to the successful usurper. Richard, somewhat aware that this project was more likely to encounter scruples than any of the former, hints his design with caution: he insinuates it with acknowledgement of obligation; and endeavours to anticipate his conscience, by suggesting to him,



him, along with this acknowledgment, the recollection of former guilt. Not aware, however, of the force contained in the resisting principles, and apprehending that the mind of his assistant was now as depraved as he desired, he hazards too abruptly the mention of his design. The consequence, in perfect consistency with both their natures, is coldness and irreconcilable hatred.'

In the Essay on King Lear, he attempts to shew that 'mere sensibility, undirected by reflection, leads men to an extravagant expression both of social and unsocial feelings; renders them capriciously inconstant in their affections; variable, and of course irresolute, in their conduct.' The plan of this Essay is concise, clear, and consistent; at the same time it scarcely furnishes a passage but what the philosopher will approve, and the man of taste admire.

The character of Timon is explained with elegance, but perhaps not with equal penetration. So far as Mr. Richardson's reflections lead us, we cannot object: but the change from generosity and profusion to misanthropy, involves more extensive considerations. Our author has recapitulated the sum of his explanation in a few words, which we shall consequently insert.

'There are few instances of a dramatic character executed with such strict regard to unity of design, as that of Timon. This is not all. Is it not enough to say, that all the parts of his conduct are consistent, or connected with one general principle. They have an union of a more intimate nature. All the qualities in his character, and all the circumstances in his conduct, lead to one final event. They all co-operate, directly or indirectly, in the accomplishment of one general purpose. It is as if the poet had proposed to demonstrate, how persons of good temper, and social dispositions, may become misanthropical. He assumes the social dispositions to be constitutional, and not confirmed by reason or by reflection. He then employs the love of distinction to bring about the conclusion. He shews its effects, in superceding the influence of better principles, in assuming their appearance, and so, in establishing self-deceit. He shews its effects, in producing ostentation, injudicious profusion, and disappointment. And lastly, he shews, how its effects contributed to excite and exasperate those bitter feelings which estranged Timon from all mankind. Timon, at the beginning of the drama, seems altogether humane and affectionate; at the end he is an absolute misanthrope. Such opposition indicates inconsistency of character; unless the change can be traced through its causes and progress. If it can be traced, and if the appearance shall seem natural, this aspect of the human mind affords a curious and very interesting spectacle. Observe, in an instance or two, the fine lineaments and delicate

cate shadings of this singular character. The poet refuses admission even to those circumstances which may be suitable, and consistent enough with the general principle ; but which would rather coincide with the main design, than contribute to its consummation. Timon is lavish ; but he is neither dissolute or intemperate. He is convivial ; but he enjoys the banquet not in his own, but in the pleasure of his guests. Though he displays the pomp of a masquerade, Phrynia and Timandria are in the train not of Timon, but of Alcibiades. He tells us, alluding to the correctness of his deportment,

“ No villainous bounty yet hath pass'd my heart ;  
Unwisely, not ignobly, have I given.”

‘ We may observe, too, that he is not so desirous of being distinguished for mere external magnificence, as of being distinguished for courteous and beneficent actions. He does some good, but it is to procure distinction ; he solicits distinction, but it is by doing good.

‘ Upon the whole, “ Shakspeare in his Timon of Athens, illustrates the consequences of that inconsiderate profusion which has the appearance of liberality, and is supposed by the inconsiderate person himself to proceed from a generous principle ; but which, in reality, has its chief origin in the love of distinction.”

Mr. Richardson next endeavours to point out the defects of his author, lest he might be thought to have been so far dazzled by his excellencies, as to descend to indiscriminate admiration. He repeats those which have been usually attributed to Shakspeare, and thinks all may have been owing to a defect in taste. To support his opinion, he endeavours to define this fleeting subject more accurately. ‘ Consummate taste,’ says he, ‘ requires that we be capable of feeling what is excellent ; that we be capable, in some measure, of discerning the parts, and correspondence of parts, which, in works of invention, occasion excellence ; and that we have competent knowlege in those things which are the subjects of an artist's labour.’ But perhaps, in this passage, and in his comment on it, he extends his definition too far. Strictly speaking, taste is only that acute perception which leads to the just and proper discrimination of faults and beauties in the structure or execution of any work. Judgment and acquired knowlege may be necessary to its perfection, but these are not the object of taste ; for they together include all the talents necessary to the performance. If then we say that, in this extensive sense, an author wants taste, it arraigns him of a very important defect. It were needless to specify works of little taste, which display, in the highest degree, accuracy and judgment. It may be allowed that, in our sense, Shakspeare was deficient in



*An Essay on Public Credit.*

in this quality; and, in some degree, in those which follow; but his rapidity was so great as to hide minute defects, even from himself; and the taste of his age, little more refined, left him at liberty to pursue his object without restraint. In the whole of this career, we therefore find him attentive only to general effect: and a very learned commentator has contended, that little more is really necessary. Perhaps the illusion of the theatre is seldom extended beyond a single scene; and the imagination can, with equal ease, suppose the interval of an act to be ten minutes, or ten years. Our author however pursues his position, by deducing the consequences which would naturally arise from the defects of Shakspeare. The one is, that a person who does not possess consummate taste, will be misled by maxims frequently repeated, but ill understood; which have some foundation, but must be received with caution. The opinion that a dramatist must follow nature, has consequently led Shakspeare into that mixture of comedy with his tragic scenes, which so frequently disgusts. The other faults proceed from the want of critical knowledge, and correcting his works. We own that we are glad of all these defects; for we believe that they constitute a great part of the pleasure which we receive from him. His more uniform tragedies are certainly of inferior merit; and when he writes learnedly, like Jonson, we sleep as readily as over the studied speeches of Cataline.

We have already extended this article too far; but it is not easy to quit a favourite subject. Perhaps the heterodoxy of some opinions may require a greater apology; yet we have no doubt of their bearing the touchstone of the most rigid examination. The volume concludes with some additional observations on Hamlet, which are curious and just. But, if we had not already offended, we could not offer any remarks on them, as they are so intimately connected with the former volume. We ought however to add, that few critics seem to have developed this character with equal precision; and, notwithstanding a few errors, with greater accuracy.

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*An Essay on the Nature and Principles of Public Credit.* 8vo.  
4s. in Boards. White.

THIS subject, though peculiarly interesting at a moment when the desponding patriot dreams only of the destruction of that bubble, which deluded nations have expanded beyond its proper size, is still involved in confusion and obscurity. The author of the present very intricate and laboured Essay, has contributed to elucidate it, so far as it depends on calculations;

lations; but the conclusions must be corrected and limited by considerations of a very different nature. It is not only on general principles that we can determine the resources of a nation, and the most advantageous methods of financing: it is not from the mere algebraical calculations, that we can ascertain the magnitude of the grievance, which results from an increase of debt: we must also consider the nature of the commerce of the kingdom; the credit which its merchants have usually given; and the real state of its money, both real and imaginary. There are many situations, where the smallest revenue would be particularly burthensome; and, on the contrary, where the most exorbitant interest would be comparatively inconsiderable. For these reasons we shall not particularly follow our author in those general calculations which constitute the bulk of his performance. His great merit consists in a clearness of distinction, when he considers the various kinds of loans, and their influence on the subsequent events. In his reasoning from them, he is not equally accurate; at least, if he is so, we are unable to comprehend his arguments, though we have followed them with uncommon care.

The advantages which accrue to a nation from a public debt, have been perhaps exaggerated, while its grievance has been magnified in the same degree. 'An Essay on the Nature and Principles of Public Credit,' must necessarily consider this question; and it is useful to attend to the result of the enquiries of a diligent and attentive author. In our opinion, he determines on it with propriety and candour: without admitting the declamations of either party, which are however assigned to imaginary persons, who endeavour to support their own cause, he thinks it on the whole useful; for it is not only the most convenient method, but, when conducted with proper attention, he clearly shows that it is the least expensive.

When he has established this position, he enquires into the concomitant circumstances. A public debt necessarily supposes a rate of interest; and he endeavours to show that we ought to declare the real rate; and by no *douceur*, or any private advantages, endeavour to conceal it. We do not indeed think with our author, that this method is really detrimental: the *finesse* is generally understood, and attended with the whole effect; though perhaps some men, who really accept ten per cent. in this manner, would refuse a much less rate in a more undisguised form.—Mr. Gale next proceeds to consider the peculiar nature of annuity stocks, which he examines with precision; and his reflections on this subject lead him



nim to an enquiry into the principles by which the comparative value of money is governed. The chief of these is the 'real quantity in circulation independent of the velocity of the circulation.' The last section contains a view of the various circumstances which contribute to counteract each other; and, in the most unfortunate situations, while the vital strength is yet entire, to produce some kind of equilibrium. We own the comparison of the gravitation of the universe, and the balance of the solar system, introduced to illustrate the balance of public credit, raised a smile; but it was not a smile of ridicule or contempt. Our author is too respectable to suffer by trifling blemishes.

The Postscript contains some sensible observations relating to particular parts of the foregoing work. It is so connected in its different parts, that we have not been able to select a specimen. His observations on paper-money are judicious; but our preferring them for an extract, arises rather from their being more detached from the general subject of the volume, than their superiority to some other parts.

'Paper-money is by some considered as a mockery and delusion, because (they say) it has no intrinsic value.—It must indeed be admitted, that there is no intrinsic value in paper-money: but this admission will not, in the smallest degree, support the opinion of its being a mockery or delusion.

'If we trace the value of property, according to the natural course and order of things, to the real source or fountain from whence that value proceeds, we shall find that there is no article whatever, whereof the value has any internal or intrinsic residence in the article itself.—The value of any article of whatever sort or kind, is (not intrinsic, independent, or absolute, but) extrinsic, dependent, and comparative; and resides altogether in the demands or occasions that there shall be for such articles, and the ease or difficulty with which those demands may be supplied.

'Those things which are the most immediately essential for man's existence, may perhaps be the most proper, and the most convictive, for the elucidation of this observation.

'Food and raiment, then, are evidently the most essentially necessary; and, consequently, the most truly valuable of all commodities: but their value has no kind of internal or intrinsic residence in the articles themselves.—If men went universally naked, and neither ate nor drank, what value could there possibly be in eatables, drinkables, or cloathing?—the value therefore is extrinsic, not intrinsic:—it does not reside in the things themselves;—it evidently resides altogether in the wants and occasions of man.

'In like manner, the value of every thing else, of whatever sort or kind, is extrinsic, not intrinsic; and it is the demand (and the demand alone) that makes it valuable.

'Hence,

‘Hence, then,—If paper-money be created, and a proportionate demand therefore be at the same time created also, it must consequently have the self-same value as any thing else, so far as such demand extends.

‘In every civilized state there must be a necessity for taxes, and (of course) a demand for a circulating medium of some kind or other: and while the taxes or demands therefore are proportionate to the supply thereof, how is it possible that its value can depreciate, whether it be composed of one kind of materials or of another?—It is perfectly evident, from the very nature of things, that it cannot in that case suffer any depreciation whatsoever.—On the other hand, it is equally evident, from the nature of things, that if the supply shall exceed the demand, its value must infallibly depreciate, whatever may be the materials of which it shall be composed.’

We wish to preserve our author’s promise, though we own that the ambiguity of the expression disables us from giving it in any but his own words. We have therefore selected the concluding lines of the last section.

‘In a word,—If the malady shall become any thing considerable, however large the sinking fund shall be, there can be but little (if any) probability of ever effecting the cure, by using an improper method in the application of it: and, on the other hand, however small the sinking fund shall be, or however great the malady,—if the sinking fund shall be properly applied, it will infallibly effect a perfect cure, and infallibly restore the public credit to its pristine state.—This shall be the subject of a future essay.’

*Poems, on Subjects arising in England and the West Indies. By a Native of the West Indies. 4to. 3s. Faulder.*

THESE Poems are evidently written by one who has spent a considerable part of his time in the West Indies; and, notwithstanding they are often debased by uncouth expressions, and vulgar phrases, fully repay our perusal of them, by the peculiarity of manners and scenery which they exhibit. The descriptive parts seem to be drawn from the author’s own observations, and the sentiments to flow from his real feeling. His interview with a Negro, as given in the first Poem, is pathetic, and does credit to his humanity. In another, entitled the ‘Antigua Planter, or War and Famine,’ written in the year 1779, when the French had a superiority over us at sea, and that island suffered severely from a dry season, we meet with many truly poetical and striking passages. The following address to the Muses, if we except the concluding word of the third line, appears to us in that light.

‘And



‘ And hither, O ye lovely sisters, bring  
Some drops of crystal from your sacred spring;  
Such drops as from the mourning April run,  
When clouds and tempests gather round the sun.’

The lines subsequent to the description of a planter's distress, whose sugar-mill had ceased to move as usual, for want of wind to turn it, are entitled to much approbation.

‘ Rais'd on the summit of that narrow ground,  
She stands like some poor captive basely bound.  
No longer merry slaves, and rip'ning canes,  
Move to the joyous hurry of her vanes;  
No longer Plenty, with her copious horn,  
Pays her gay visit to the youthful morn;  
No longer gentle stars and heavenly pow'rs,  
Like modest maids, attend the earth with show'rs;  
But suns perpetual burn our thirsty land,  
And noxious sun-beams sparkle on the sand.  
Around, behold, what marks of heav'nly ire,  
And rays descend, like arrows barb'd with fire!  
To western skies, our hot Atlantic sun,  
His thirsty day's diurnal course has run.  
No humid clouds, in ruddy æther roll'd,  
To mark his morning's near approach with gold;  
From his broad front no streaming glories shone,  
And all the winds were lull'd around his throne.  
No gentle breezes from the ocean blew,  
To brush from off the pointed thorn the dew.  
But horrors, rising with the sultry day,  
Mark'd the dread splendour of his fiery way!’

The reader will observe two or three exceptionable lines in the passage we have quoted; and there are others in that which immediately follows, descriptive of the Negroe's misery: it is, however highly wrought, and delineated in a strong and characteristic manner.

There is a simplicity of style, and strength of fancy in two Poems; one entitled, a Scene in the West Indies; and the other Night in Miniature, which opens in the following manner:

‘ At length the silver moon is up,  
And leads the starry pow'r;  
Now night has clos'd each drooping cup  
Of ev'ry drooping flow'r.  
  
And now the bee has hush'd that tone,  
Which late I heard so high,  
And other tribes of harsher moan,  
His sounds but ill supply.

That

That bee I saw, with wings so slight,  
 Disport in noon-tide breeze ;  
 The bee that trod those flowers so light,  
 Was sweeter far than these.

All day, poor wretch, I saw him toil,  
 To swell his little store ;  
 And now, indeed, he rests a while,  
 For this day's toil is o'er.

And now I hear the crickets call ;  
 The glow worm's light, I see,  
 And tho' her trembling light be small,  
 'Tis quite enough for me.

The spider now has laid his snare  
 Of cobweb hid from view,  
 And, ere his mercy whispers spare,  
 Shall slay a fly or two.

Now, too, the ants have caught a worm,  
 On which they mean to sup ;  
 And ere the beetle sounds his knell ;  
 Those ants will eat him up.

I've heard, the fairy king and queen  
 Oft seek these lonely hours ;  
 Tho' often heard, are never seen,  
 So wonderful their pow'rs !

On Night's soft ear their voices steal,  
 When all is hush'd and dark ;  
 And up the middle air they wheel,  
 Much swifter than the lark.

Now deeper darkness veils the earth,  
 And lulls each drowsy scene ;  
 While not a lab'ring thought has birth,  
 Whilst Silence reigns as queen.

So still's the air thro' all the skies,  
 So peaceful all the lakes,  
 That not a downy thistle flies,  
 Or wat'ry bubble breaks.'

The quotations we have given will, we apprehend, sufficiently prove that the author is possessed of no inconsiderable share of natural genius. Many passages, though we meet with others extremely liable to censure, are truly original ; and where the latter occur, a performance, however otherwise defective, is infinitely preferable to the generality of those tame productions with which the press so much abounds ; that convey, in correct language, the hackneyed images, and thread-bare thoughts, of a long list of preceding rhymers.



*Anecdotes of the Russian Empire. In a Series of Letters, written a few Years ago, from St. Petersburg. 8vo. 6s. Cadell.*

THE ingenious author of these letters went with lord C—— and his family, in 1768, to Russia; where, during a residence of four years, he had opportunities of making many observations on the manners of the Russians, and of knowing some interesting particulars in the characters of eminent persons. The facts which he relates are either such as he had occasion to witness, or as had been communicated to him by persons on whose information he could depend. Several of the letters however, and those not the least entertaining, are written on subjects which have no immediate connection with the author's general design. But a reader of taste will not regret an intermixture which affords agreeable diversity; and where national anecdotes are, suspended only to make room for philosophical reflection, or some beautiful production of poetry.

The volume begins with the Journal of a Voyage from England to St. Petersburg. Among the objects that occurred to the author's observation, in performing this passage, he mentions a small palace belonging to the king of Denmark. It is distant about two miles from Elsinore; is flat-roofed; has twelve windows in front; and is said to be built on the place formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father. In an adjoining garden is shewn the very spot where, according to tradition, that prince was poisoned.

From the 2d of August, the day on which the vessel left the Nore, the voyage was speedy and agreeable, until the 13th of that month, at one in the morning, when the ship struck upon a rock in the gulf of Finland. In this dangerous situation the vessel was lightened, by throwing several of the guns, and some heavy casks, into the sea. Signals of distress had been hung out, and six or seven guns had been fired; but, though in the neighbourhood of some islands, no boats came off to their assistance. After sun-set the hopes of the voyagers were revived by the appearance of sails at some distance. Signals of distress were repeated, and it was imagined by all on board, that the ships were steering towards them; but their expectation was soon blasted, by seeing the vessels sail away, and themselves left in the aggravated distress of being thus cruelly abandoned. But by a more merciful fate, they were soon afterwards relieved from their situation, and on the 15th of August, arrived at St. Petersburg. The first object of our author's attention in the Russian capital, is the ceremony of the empress's laying the foundation-stone of

a church dedicated to St. Isaac, and intended to be the largest in St. Peterburgh. Omitting the description of this scene, we shall present our readers with the more interesting account of a diary of the empress, as the author heard it from the countess Romansoff, a very respectable old lady of the first distinction at the Russian court.

‘ Her majesty, according to this authority, rises at five in the morning, and is engaged in business till near ten. She then breakfasts, and goes to prayers: dines at two: withdraws to her own apartment soon after dinner: drinks tea at five: sees company, plays at cards, or attends public places, the play, opera, or masquerade, till supper: and goes to sleep at ten. By eleven every thing about the palace is as still as midnight. Whist is her favourite game at cards; she usually plays for five imperials the rubber; and as she plays with great clearness and attention, she is often successful: she sometimes plays too at picquet and cribbage. Though she is occasionally present at musical entertainments, she is not said to be fond of music. In the morning, between prayers and dinner, she frequently takes an airing, according as the weather admits, in a coach or sledge. On these occasions, she has sometimes no guards, and very few attendants; and does not chuse to be known or saluted as empress. It is in this manner that she visits any great works that may be going on in the city, or in the neighbourhood. She is fond of having small parties of eight or ten persons with her at dinner; and she frequently sups, goes to balls, or masquerades, in the houses of her nobility. When she retires to her palaces in the country, especially to Zarskocelo, she lays aside all state, and lives with her ladies on a footing of as easy intimacy as possible. Any one of them who rises on her entering or going out of a room, is fined in a rouble: and all forfeits of this sort are given to the poor. You will easily perceive, that by her regular and judicious distribution of time, she is able to transact a great deal of business; and that the affability of her manners render her much beloved. But I will not yet say any thing very positive concerning her character and principles of action. For, she may be very social and very affable, “and smile, and smile, and” — you know the rest.

‘ I may, however, very safely affirm, that a great number of her actions, so great indeed as to constitute a distinguishing feature in her character, proceed either from the desire of doing good, or the love of fame. If the last, it must also be acknowledged, that the praise she is so desirous of obtaining, is, in many instances, the praise of humanity. Sometimes, indeed, there is a sort of whim or affectation of singularity, in the manner of conferring her favours, that looks as if the desire of being spoken of, fully as much as the desire of doing good, was the fountain from which they flow. For example—A young officer, who attended the court, fell in love, as was natural, with



with a young lady. The lady, as was also natural, appeared not insensible to his worth, nor displeased with his assiduity. But want of fortune on both sides, was an obstacle to their union. The empress however perceived their attachment; and sent one day for the young gentleman to a private conference. She told him she had observed that M—— and he entertained great tenderness for one another; that the whole court observed it; and hinted something like regret, that such things should have been remarked. The young man was disconcerted; but had firmness enough to avow the sincerity of his passion. "Then," said her majesty, "you must forthwith be married." This was sudden: the young man shewed some hesitation; but not from any motives that were improper: "he had no fortune, and could not maintain the lady in a manner suited to her rank and merits." The empress was peremptory. They were married as speedily as the forms of the church permitted, and sent off in a coach to St. Petersburg; for the court was at that time at Zarskocelo. They knew not whither they were going, nor how they were to subsist; nor were they very certain of their not having incurred their sovereign's displeasure. Meantime, the persons who conducted them, and who would give them no information, set them down in the Galerinhoff. Here, to their utter astonishment, they were carried into a house elegantly furnished; they met with a numerous company of their friends; they found a splendid entertainment; and the bridegroom was told by a messenger from the empress, that her majesty had given him that house as he found it, and had appointed him to an office "suited to his rank and merits."

The subject of the fourth letter is an extraordinary occurrence in the history of an absolute government; the meeting of the deputies assembled by the empress, from different parts of Russia, to assist her majesty in making laws. We are told that the deputies, in their first address, styled her 'great, wise, and the mother of her people;' but she declined the two first of these titles in her reply, which was to the following effect: 'None can be called great before death; none wise, that are mortal; I hope I shall act as the mother of my people.'

The meeting consisted of about six hundred members. They met in the palace, in a large hall, provided with several adjoining rooms for committees. The assembly had no pretensions to freedom of debate; and hardly any tendency towards establishing political liberty. The members, in general, were chosen by the will of the sovereign. By her the subjects of debate were proposed; she kept in her own hands the right of ratifying every determination; and the assembly might be dismissed at her pleasure. All the deputies wore on their breasts gold medals, as the badges of their office; and

as they had come to St. Peterburgh from the remotest parts of the empire, the variety of their dresses, we are told, was whimsical and amusing. The following anecdote, which our author says he has several times heard, of two Samoid deputies, is worthy of being mentioned.

‘The empress asked them to suggest such laws as they apprehended would promote the welfare of their nation. One of them replied, that they had very few laws, and did not desire any more. “How,” said the empress, “have you no crimes! Are there no persons among you guilty of theft, murder, or adultery? If you have crimes, you must have punishment; and punishment supposes law.” “We have such crimes,” answered the deputy, “and they are duly punished. If one man puts another to death unjustly, he also must suffer death.” Here he stopped: he thought he had said enough. “But what” resumed her majesty, “are the punishments of theft and adultery?” “How,” said the Samoid, with a good deal of surprise, “is not detection sufficient punishment?”—One would imagine, from this anecdote, that the Samoids are, or resemble, the nation of whom Tacitus says, “*Plusque ibi boni mores valent, quam alibi bone leges.*” “and virtuous manners have there more efficacy than good laws elsewhere.”

Such public occurrences as we have already mentioned, may come to the knowledge of any traveller who is moderately inquisitive; but we are sensible that, in general, it is not an easy matter to obtain information concerning the state of Russia. Very little, as our author observes in one of his Letters, can be reaped from mixed conversation; where the topics usually discussed are those which relate only to the amusement of the company. With regard to its being, as he farther observes, an unpleasant thing to ask questions, this is an argument so repugnant to the operation of laudable curiosity, that it ought to be admitted with great reserve. ‘The inquirer, says our author, is so much in the power of the person he addresses, that the situation is disagreeable; or he puts people so much on their guard against him, that he defeats his own purpose, and receives not even accidental or indirect information. They entertain suspicions of your design; they think you wish to be a profound politician, or that you are carrying on a treasonable correspondence; or, still more atrocious, that your purpose is to publish a book; or, lastly, they may perchance have read Horace, and have said to themselves, in the words of that exquisite poet,

*Percontatorem fugito, nam garrulus idem est.*’

The arguments above suggested appear highly plausible; though there is something ludicrous in the gradation, according



ing to the author's arrangement. The fear of incurring suspicion of treasonable correspondence might alone be a sufficient motive to deter any prudent traveller from asking a number of questions. But when, by the climax, we find a political crime of such magnitude, mentioned as less atrocious in the eyes of a Russian than the suspicion of publishing a book, or the violation of a precept of Horace, we must acknowledge we are utterly at a loss to reconcile the existence of so much barbarism, with such a degree of classical philosophy, in one and the same people. We submit it to the consideration of the ingenious author, whether, in the above passage, Horace be not introduced in such a manner as that judicious critic, who knew so well the laws of propriety, *quod verum atque decens*, would have disapproved. If this be admitted, we have only to remark farther, as a singularity in morals, that the character which Horace cautions against, may really be incurred by endeavouring too studiously to avoid it. Our author, however, without being reduced to the necessity of asking questions, appears to have had good opportunities of making remarks on the manners of the Russians. Thus, in the following extract, he describes the distribution of prizes to students in the academy at St. Petersburg, and the representation of a Russian tragedy.

I was lately present at a distribution of prizes to students educated in the academy of arts and sciences. I passed through two large rooms, where the boys, dressed in white uniforms, were drawn up in two ranks; and went into a third, where the great duke, and other academicians, were seated round a table, on which were placed specimens of hand-writing and drawing, executed by the scholars. There were also present many ladies and gentlemen of the court. Count Betskoy began the ceremony, by addressing a speech to the grand duke, in which he recommended the seminary to his protection. To this his imperial highness replied, "As the welfare of Russia shall ever be the object nearest my heart; and as the proper education of youth is of so much consequence in every well-ordered state, it claims, and shall ever obtain, my most constant attention." He spoke slowly, and with propriety, yet not without the diffidence of an amiable boy. On sitting down, he turned smiling to count Panin, his governor, with the air of one asking, have I acquitted myself aright? The count seemed to assent, and I thought a tear rose in his eye. I was told that the empress was present among the ladies; but though this might be known to them, she did not chuse upon that occasion to be acknowledged as empress. The mother wished to observe her son. It was the first time he had spoken in public; and the mother's heart must have thrilled with pleasure. I almost wept for joy. — After this the company passed into another room, where the prizes were distributed.

buted. They were first presented to the ladies, and by them to the little boys. The scene was amusing; and was enlivened at intervals by a band of musicians in an adjoining recess.—Tell me now, would not a stranger, on witnessing such a scene, on seeing one of the most powerful sovereigns on earth, and the presumptive heir of this mighty empire, so attentive to the welfare and improvement of their people, would he not feel rapture, approve, and applaud? Yet when I express those sentiments, there are persons who shake their heads; who tell me, this academy has subsisted for many years, and what have they done? It may be mentioned with ostentatious pomp in a news-paper, or by Voltaire, and nothing else is intended.—Such speeches are mortifying; and, notwithstanding their authority, I must say, that even admitting the love of fame to be the sole motive, the means used are far more laudable than those practised by princes who pursue the objects of their ambition, by adding one inhuman act to another.

‘The academy mentioned above was founded in a former reign. But at a convent, a few versts from St. Petersburg, there is an establishment for the education of young women, by her present majesty. It somewhat resembles that of St. Cyr, founded by M. Maintenon; and the empress maintains in it two hundred girls, from six to eighteen years old. They are divided into two classes: the first consists of the children of officers, above the rank of major, inclusive: and the second consists of the children of inferior officers; the first are instructed in elegant and polite accomplishments; and the second, together with music and dancing, are taught to work in all female employments. All their expences, comprehending even their dress, are defrayed by the empress.

‘I was present, some time ago, at an entertainment consisting of dances of different kinds, which they exhibited in presence of the grand duke, and many of the nobility. It began with dances by girls of the second class, who were dressed uniformly in brown petticoats, blue jackets, white aprons, white caps and handkerchiefs. They were succeeded by those of the first division, who were dressed in court-dresses of different colours; excepting that the younger part were dressed uniformly in white, trimmed with blue.—But the most amusing exercise I have seen them exhibit was the representation of a Russian tragedy. It was represented not only with propriety, but with elegance; and not only so, but with great theatrical ability. The flowing hair, the sparkling blue eyes, the fine figure, and graceful motions of the young lady who performed the principal character; her melodious voice, and exquisite but well-regulated sensibility, charmed, and even transported, her audience. Near where I sat was an old venerable officer: during the first scenes, his solicitude and anxiety were very apparent; they were soon changed into joy; his emotions flowed out in tears:—she was his grandchild.

‘Yet



Yet blue eyes, fine figure, and melodious voice, have no effect on those who shake their heads, and make sage remarks. They chill the ardour of your applause by asking, what provision is made for these young ladies after they leave the convent? and whether their education be suited to their fortune or expectations? and whether, if they should not soon get husbands, they will be inclined, after all this music and dancing, and tragedizing, to submit to the rigid laws of a nunnery?—Question-asking, as I observed at the beginning of this letter, is no pleasant business; and the above questions seemed to me particularly disagreeable, as I was not just furnished with fit replies. I ought to have mentioned that the nuns resident in this convent, some of whom were present at the above-mentioned entertainments, have it in charge, to instruct the young ladies in religious knowlege.

In a subsequent letter, the author presents us with a description of the Russian winter, illustrated by several beautiful passages from the third Georgic of Virgil, on which he makes some pertinent remarks, expressive of judgment and good taste. One phenomenon in the Russian atmosphere, he particularly observed. It is, that in the coldest and brightest weather, an infinite number of little shining darts, or spiculæ, may be seen flying in all directions through the sky. They seem to be about a quarter of an inch in length; not thicker than the finest hair; and their golden colour, glancing as they shoot through the deep azure sky, has a beautiful appearance.

Our author's account of the Russians, in respect of religion, is unfavourable. Though it is pretended that its principles are pure and rational; the practice, he affirms, is different; neither the clergy, in general, being exemplary, nor the laity upright. On no consideration would a Russian peasant omit his fastings, the bending of his body, and the regularity of his attendance on sacred rites; but he has no scruple to steal, or commit murder. The clergy are represented as, in general, extremely ignorant. No more learning is usually required of common officiating parish priests, or popes, as they are called, than that they be able to read the old Russ or Slavonian language. They seldom or never preach; and their chief duty consists in the knowlege of forms, and in reading prayers and portions of scripture.

Agriculture being still in its infancy in Russia, on account of the slavery of the peasants, the empress endeavours to promote some knowlege of this necessary art, by forming colonies of strangers. Our author describes a Russian plow as a ridiculous object. It is so light that it may be lifted in the hand: it is drawn by one small horse; the plough-share does not exceed the size of a large carving-knife, and serves no other

purpose than to loosen the surface of the earth. Yet in some places, to which our author made an excursion, there are tolerable crops of barley, rye, and buckity wheat; and, in many places, extensive meadows, luxuriant with natural grass.

The celebrated count Munich makes a distinguished figure in the history of Russia; and of this personage Mr. Richardson has presented us with some anecdotes, which not being generally known, may be acceptable to many of our readers.

Count Munich was prime minister of Russia, in the reign of the empress Anna Ivanowna, and in that of her successor Ivan; was condemned to suffer death by the empress Elizabeth, but received a pardon on the scaffold; and, instead of being beheaded, was banished into Siberia. Count Osterman, his political rival, was to have suffered death at the same time, and in the same manner: he ascended the scaffold: saw the axe and the executioner; committed his soul to heaven; laid his head upon the block; expected the deadly blow; was lifted up; had his eyes uncovered; and was told that the empress had spared his life, but that he must go into banishment. One might ask whether, in this instance, mercy wore the vizar of cruelty, or cruelty the vizar of mercy? — The countess Munich had the liberty of choosing, either to accompany her husband into a wild and dreary region in the north of Asia; or to remain with her acquaintance and friends in Petersburg. Without hesitation or reluctance she chose to follow her husband.

The commanding officer of the fortress where the count was confined, was strictly enjoined to allow him no more than the mere necessities of life; and was ordered to indulge him in no alleviation of his sufferings. But, fortunately for Munich, the officer had served under him in the Turkish war, and was a person of a generous and humane disposition. Moved by veneration for his general, whom he had seen performing so many gallant exploits, and conceiving himself out of the reach of information, by his great distance from the capital, he did every thing in his power to soften the rigour of exile; and, among other indulgences, permitted him the use of materials for writing; and to have some intercourse with the inhabitants of the country. The countess found amusement, and pleasure and relief, during many solitary years, in instructing the children of the neighbouring peasants. For this alleviation of her misfortune, she was indebted to the same goodness of heart that carried her from the gaiety of social life into the midst of a lonely desert: for had she been proud and selfish, she could not have submitted to, or been capable of, any such employment; and must consequently have been deprived of the comfort which it afforded her. Even the discharge of her duty to her husband, and his affectionate gratitude, could not otherwise have preserved her from pining. The count found amusement in the exercises of a well-regulated understanding; he employed himself in writing the memoirs



memoirs of his life, and in drawing plans of sieges and fortifications.

But these alleviations of their captivity were interrupted. A Russian officer passing through the country, and staying some days at the fortress, observed the liberty enjoyed by Munich, and had the singular inhumanity, on his return to St. Petersburg, to inform Elizabeth of all he had seen. The dispositions which led him to inform, led him also to exaggerate. He insinuated, that the count was plotting mischief against the empress, or against the state: and that his plans and writings were not matter of mere amusement. Accordingly, the friend of Munich was suddenly recalled, divested of his authority, and threatened with the punishment of treasonable disobedience. But the count, in order to exculpate his benefactor, sent all the papers he possessed, those memoirs and those plans, which were the objects of his affection, and his solace for many winters of dismal solitude: he sent them with the utmost readiness to St. Petersburg. This effort cost him a grievous pang. They were burnt. But they were an oblation offered on the altar of grateful friendship; for he had the consolation of learning, that they had been the means of preserving his friend from rigorous punishment. He had not however the happiness of seeing him return to Siberia.

On the accession of Peter the Third, he was relieved from his captivity; and, after an exile of twenty-five years, was restored to his former honours. One of the first persons he met with at court, after his restoration, was his old enemy and rival count Osterman, who, as was above mentioned, had been exiled at the same time with himself, and was now also at court for the first time since his recal. What, do you apprehend, were the sentiments of these two remarkable men, on this extraordinary and unexpected meeting? They had been equally ambitious; had possessed similar political abilities; had been engaged in the same pursuits; competitors for the same pre-eminence, and of course in violent opposition to each other: they had both been disappointed, had suffered similar punishment, and were now, after a long period, in the same manner, and at the same instant, released. Would any remains of their old animosity still lurk in their bosoms, and still darken their hearts? Or, rather, cured of the ambition which had formerly set them at variance, would they not regard one another with some complacency? would they not feel as if they had met in heaven? and, despising the littleness of their former dissensions, would not the recollection unite their affections? Such, perhaps, would have been the tendency of their feelings, if the presence of so many spectators, who beheld them with gazing curiosity, had not impressed their minds with the dread of impropriety, and so restrained their emotions. The circumstances were indeed disagreeable; and the emperor, by whose clemency they were restored, would have shewn a delicate, instead of a whimsical generosity, if he had prevented a situation so very painful. I am indeed persuaded, by the follow-  
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ing anecdote, that if the heart of Munich had been allowed to flow unrestrained, it would have flowed in a full stream of complacency. — Soon after his return to St. Petersburg, the person who had so maliciously informed against the officer who had shewn him so much attention in Siberia, sought an early opportunity of waiting upon him, threw himself at his feet, and craved his forgiveness. "Go," said the old man, "were my heart like yours, perhaps I might seek for revenge; but as I am out of your reach, you have no reason to be afraid."

Among those in St. Petersburg who seek amusement in reading, we are informed that German literature is much in fashion; and the author presents us with a translation of some fables from the German of Lessing, which are no unfavourable specimens of that agreeable fabulist. But these we shall pass over, to lay before our readers some original verses, the production of our author's own pen; which are written with purity of sentiment, and in a strain of elegant simplicity. They were sent with some flowers to a young lady, now V——s of S——t.

‘ To thee, sweet smiling maid, I bring  
The beauteous progeny of spring :  
In every breathing bloom I find  
Some pleasing emblem of thy mind.  
The blushes of that opening rose  
Thy tender modesty disclose.  
These snow-white lillies of the vale  
Diffusing fragrance to the gale,  
No ostentatious tints assume,  
Vain of their exquisite perfume ;  
Careless, and sweet, and mild, we see  
In them a lovely type of thee.  
In yonder gay-enamel'd field,  
Serene that azure blossom smil'd :  
Not changing with the changeful sky,  
Its faithless tints inconstant fly ;  
For, unimpair'd by winds and rain,  
I saw th' unalter'd hue remain.  
So were thy mild affections prov'd,  
Thy heart by Fortune's frown unmov'd,  
Pleas'd to administer relief,  
In times of woe would solace grief.  
These flowers with genuine beauty glow ;  
The tints from Nature's pencil flow :  
What artist could improve their bloom ?  
Or sweeter make their sweet perfume ?  
Fruitless the vain attempt. Like these  
Thy native truth, thine artless ease,  
Fair, unaffected maid, can never fail to please.’

In



In the twentieth letter, the author describes the funeral of the princess Kurakin, as an example of the Russian ceremonies in the burial of the dead. One part of the ceremony is the aspasmus, or last embrace, accompanied with a hymn, recited by the attending clergy. This hymn, according to our author's information, was written originally in Greek, by the famous Joannes Damascenus; and was translated from him, for the use of the Russian church, into the Sclavonian, the dialect used in Russia in acts of religious worship. A translation of it into English is given in one of these letters.

We soon afterwards meet with the translation of an elegiac poem, from the original of a young Lusatian. The subject is, the Victim of fancied Woe; a subject perhaps more congenial to a vitiated than a sound imagination; but the magic of the muse can more than compensate the ideas that flow from apprehension; and the animated sensibility expressed in the version, affords additional evidence of the author's poetical talents.

[To be continued.]

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*Sermons on the Evidence of a future State of Rewards and Punishments, arising from a View of our Nature and Condition; in which are considered some Objections of Hume: preached before the University of Cambridge. By William Craven, B. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Cadell.*

**I**T is certain, that the government of an infinitely wise and good Being must be uniform and consistent; and in every instance, and at every period, perfectly calculated to promote the order and harmony of the universe, and the happiness of every subordinate creature. The knowledge which we have of the divine administration, is confined to the narrow limits of this earth, and the present life. We see only the beginning of an important plan; a small part of the great drama of nature: but from this imperfect specimen we have reason to conclude, that the part which is to follow, will be noble and extensive, and gradually display still higher degrees of consummate rectitude and benevolence.

The learned author of these discourses considers the situation of mankind in the present state, and from thence deduces very proper and reasonable conclusions, relative to their future destination.

From their circumstances and endowments he shews, that this life is a state of discipline and probation; and consequently, that it is preparatory to a state of rewards and punishments. He observes, that the same inference may be drawn

drawn from the works of a supreme Being. By a particular survey of the present state, he endeavours to open a clearer prospect into the next. He considers the use and beauty of general laws in the natural and moral world, and the administration of the present life.

In compliance with the maxims advanced by certain philosophers, he endeavours to explain how far the doctrine of future rewards and punishments may be maintained on the ground of experience, by considering the future administration of affairs, as an image or copy of the present system. In the last discourse he shews, that the principles of these philosophers, though properly applied, are in themselves narrow and defective; and that our experience is not to be considered as the standard and measure of our expectations.

In the house of God are many mansions, inhabited, it may be, by different orders of intellectual beings, among whom various laws reign, various dispensations subsist, as their several capacities or conditions require. There are however within the sphere of our knowledge, creatures without number, each under regulations peculiar to their own kind. But if different creatures are treated differently, the like may be supposed of the same creatures, in different periods of their existence. We are now only in our first stage, in the very infancy of our being. Rude as we are, and uninformed, we are placed in this world: and we can partly comprehend in what respects we are properly situated. But when we consider the nature of the human mind, and what farther attainments it is capable of; how much our wills may be refined, and how our understandings may be enlarged without limit; we shall think it not impossible, but there may be a variety of states, differing in degrees of happiness, to which, if we fall not short of the glories reserved for us, we are to succeed, as we advance in knowledge and virtue. From the throne of God proceed fountains of living water, at which all creatures drink, each in the place of their abode, and distinguished by their several classes. To us, at our immense distance, and in this vale of misery, the stream that flows is not pure and unmixed: but then we are to travel forward, and draw nearer and nearer to the lofty source of happiness and perfection, by infinite gradations, by endless approaches.

Having our minds big with such reflections, we shall be unwilling to be persuaded, that the parts of our present and future existence are exactly of a piece and resemble each other; that this life is to be made the standard of our expectations, a kind of boundary; so that we are to form to ourselves no hope of a future happiness, which falls not within its limits, and is not confirmed by practice and observation; instead of attending to such maxims of philosophy, we shall rather be inclined to listen to the voice of Scripture, where it speaks a language  
more



more agreeable both to our natural desires and the genuine dictates of reason; eye hath not seen nor ear heard, neither have entered the heart of man, the things which God has prepared for them that love him.'

These discourses are of a speculative and metaphysical cast, and not calculated for superficial readers. They have been in part published before, but now appear with considerable additions; 'and the plan of them is entirely altered, to adapt them the better as an answer to the objections made of late to the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.'

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*A Succinct Account of the Rites and Ceremonies of the Jews,*  
By David Levi. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Parsons.

THIS work was compiled for the benefit and information of two sorts of readers, Jews and Christians. Its utility, with respect to the former, is obvious; for though their rites and ceremonies are all prescribed and explained in Hebrew books, yet as Hebrew is not used by them as a common language, and is therefore not understood by the generality, it was of great use to furnish them with a regular and distinct account of their religious customs and tenets in English. The use of such a work as this, with regard to Christian readers, is equally manifest. Theological and historical writers have frequent occasion to mention the notions of modern Jews; it is therefore very proper, that they should know how the Jews themselves explain their own rituals, and exhibit their credenda; for we make no doubt, but that some of our learned writers have mistaken their principles, or their practices, and charged them with absurdities, which are susceptible of a more favourable construction.

A treatise on the religious and secular customs of the Jews in Barbary, was published in 1675, by Mr. afterwards Dr. Lancelot Addison (the father of the celebrated Mr. Addison) who was for some years chaplain to the garrison at Tangier. But that author seems to have taken his ideas from conversation, or his own casual observations, and not from any Jewish records. His remarks therefore, in many cases, are not properly authenticated. The writer, whose work is now before us, on the contrary, always cites the Talmuds and other Jewish books; and consequently gives the inquisitive reader as much satisfaction as the nature of the subject will admit.

As we are willing to think favourable of the Jews when we can, we shall cite one of his remarks, in answer to Dr. Prideaux, 'who says that the resurrection which the Pharisees held, was no more than a Pythagorean resurrection; and that they

they knew of no other, till they learned it from the followers of Christ.

Having cited several verses from the 37th chapter of Ezekiel, Rabbi Levi thus proceeds:

“A plainer resurrection (of the soul with the same body) than this is, I will maintain never was preached, either by Christ, or his followers: for it is not a resurrection of one man raised from the dead four days after his death, and that person a singular beloved one: but the resurrection of a numerous host, as the prophet emphatically expresses himself. “An exceeding great army.” They also had lain there so long, that the flesh was entirely consumed from off their bodies, so that there was nothing left but the bones, and they very dry and perished, as the prophet says. “And lo they were very dry.” But mark the conclusion. “Then he said unto me, son of man, these bones are the whole house of Israel; behold, they say our bones are dried, and our hope is lost, we are cut off for our parts. Therefore prophesy, and say unto them, thus saith the Lord God, behold, O my people, I will open your graves, and cause you to come up out of your graves, and ye shall know that I am the Lord, when I have opened your graves, O my people, and brought you up out of your graves, and shall put my spirit in you and ye shall live.” This surely, is not a Pythagorean resurrection, as the doctor says, for here is no transmigration of the soul out of one body into another: because here is no new birth, but on the contrary, a real resurrection of those dead bodies which had lain there so long; and that, by means of their soul entering into their bodies again. Secondly, the prophet Daniel says. “And many of them that sleep in the dust of the earth shall awake some to everlasting life, and some to shame and everlasting contempt.” And as the prophet Ezekiel lived almost six hundred years before Christ, and Daniel being cotemporary with the former, this will plainly shew the falsity of the doctor’s proposition: for is it not a little surprising, that the Jews should learn a resurrection of the followers of Christ, when they knew of a resurrection almost six hundred years before his being on earth? and that resurrection, a plainer one than either he or his followers ever taught; to me, and to every unprejudiced mind, it seems most probable that the Christians learnt it of the Jews, than that the latter should learn it from the former. But a still stronger and more convincing proof, that the Jews both knew of, and taught a resurrection, long before Christ was upon earth, I shall produce from the words of the prophet Isaiah, who in speaking to the Jews says, “Thy dead men shall live, together with my dead  
body



body shall they arise; awake and sing ye that dwell in the dust, for thy dew is as the dew of herbs." Now, I defy all the advocates for the doctor's hypothesis, to produce any one substantial argument to invalidate the clearness of this resurrection: and as the prophet Isaiah prophesied almost two hundred years before the prophet Ezekiel; for he received the oral law from Amos, in the year 3140, which is just 192 years before Ezekiel received it from Jeremiah; this will carry us up as high as the year 786 before Christ, and 32 years before the building of Rome. And from the manner in which the prophet made use of the foregoing passage, may be deduced the following proposition, viz. that the doctrine of the resurrection was well known to the Jewish nation long before his time; for, in exciting the Jews to have confidence in God, and not to despair on account of their captivity, and the troubles and afflictions which they should suffer therein, foretells them that God would redeem them, and also punish those that had oppressed them; and in speaking of the punishment of their oppressors, says in particular, "they are dead, they shall not live, they are deceased, they shall not rise." This the prophet mentions as the greatest punishment that can possibly be inflicted upon them; and which in comforting of the Jews, he tells them should not be their state: hence it is plain, that the doctrine of the resurrection, (and consequently that of reward and punishment,) was well known to, and taught by the Jewish nation, long before the time of the prophet Isaiah; otherwise the prophet would never have made use of the phraseology which he did: for what comfort could it have been to the Jews, to be told of enjoying that which they had no idea of, and consequently were not able to comprehend? It would rather have been most likely to have had the contrary effect; and they have thought that the prophet was only bantering of them; which might have been the means of exciting them to despair, and not comfort. But the truth of the matter is, that the Jewish nation were well versed in the doctrine of the resurrection, and future state of reward and punishment, (as I have already shewn,) and hoping to enjoy it as their supreme good; consequently there was no promise which could be made to them, that could conduce more effectually to keep up their spirits, and place their firm reliance on God's providence than this; which shewed them, that although they were punished in this life, by being scattered among all nations for so many ages, and cruelly used by them for their sins; yet should they receive their reward (provided they adhered to God, and kept his law and commandments,) in a future state, as they were taught to expect; and from which their oppressors

pressors should be excluded. This is the real meaning of the words of the prophet, and which are so plain, as to be understood without a comment.

In a future publication Rabbi Levi engages to shew, in opposition to Warburton, that the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments was both known and taught by Moses, as an essential article of his dispensation.

The language of this writer is, in many places, confused and ungrammatical; but he seems to be well acquainted with the theory of his own religion, and the Talmudical system of rites and ceremonies. On this account his book may be acceptable to those who wish for information in these particulars, without the trouble of consulting more voluminous compilations.

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*Transactions of the Society, instituted at London, for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, with the Premiums offered in the Year 1783. Vol. I. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Cadell.*

**I**N the Fifty-fifth Volume of our Journal we considered the last volume of 'Memoirs of Agriculture, &c.' by Mr. Dossie; and then observed, that we found no articles later than the year 1776. But this was not the only information we usually received of the proceedings of this society, since the premiums for the ensuing year were annually published, for the information of those who might wish to claim the reward, by communicating their discoveries. We are now informed, that the Society have changed the mode of their communications; but this change applies only to their own annual publications. To their list of premiums, they propose to add the events of their former offers, and to insert some of the most distinguished papers. It is not our business to enquire how this may affect the publication, formerly conducted by Mr. Dossie. Though it may in some degree detract from the novelty of its intelligence, if continued, yet the public curiosity will not be greatly anticipated, if the annual communications are not more considerable than those before us.

In the article just now mentioned, we also hinted at the source of some objections which had diminished the lustre of the Society's intentions, and detracted from the praise which they had deserved from the execution. It is not improbable that our suggestions may have been the origin of the present volume; for, to their abstract of the several bounties and premiums distributed to the different candidates, they have added some account of the views of the Society in their offer; and of the consequences of their encouragement. These are, in many instances, highly advantageous to the discernment which  
dictated



dictated the one, and to the spirit which animated the discoverer in the prosecution of the other. While we allow the justice of the observations in general, we may be permitted to add, from our own remarks, that some of the manufactures are by no means in a flourishing state: yet the society still deserve the greatest credit from those, whose success has been more perfect and complete. It was by no means advantageous to their proceedings, to have proposed a premium for procuring fish by land-carriage; but, though this was an object very different from their original institution, it was ultimately useful, by improving the construction of the wheel carriages used for that purpose.

As we cannot completely detail the objects of the several premiums, and as every partial account would be unsatisfactory and useless, we shall not enlarge on this subject. We were rather surprised to see a premium proposed for procuring the fossil alkali from sea-salt, as we have reason to believe that a patent has been already obtained for this preparation; and the duty has been taken off, by a particular act of parliament, from the salt which has been consumed in the operation. These circumstances will probably preclude the Society from receiving any information of the means by which the separation is effected; though it may not prevent samples and certificates from being produced. If some experiments, made with this intention, have not deceived us, the end may be easily obtained, and at a cheap rate, on many parts of the English coast.

The articles contained in this volume are, 'an Account of the Method made use of, and the success attending Mr. David Day's Plantation of Ash, for which he received a Premium of Twenty Pounds, in the Year 1779.' The same gentleman received the gold medal in 1780, for the same plantation; and we are next presented with an estimate of the expence attending it. The subsequent article is 'an Account of the Plantation of Scotch Firs, for which the Gold Medal was adjudged to Francis Moore, of Apsley Guise, Esq. in the Year 1779.' Some miscellaneous communications from Dr. William Fordyce follow, on the Siberian wheat and clustered potatoes. The next accounts relate to the turnep-rooted cabbage, for which Mr. Tugwell and Mr. Robins received the premiums in 1777 and 1780. The last article, on agriculture, is the information received from John Pratt, esq. respecting the planting of lucerne; and it was communicated in 1780.

The only communication on the subject of chemistry is from Mr. Clegg, of Manchester. It relates to a substitute for  
Vol. LVII. Feb. 1784.

verdigrise, in dying black, and consists in uniting vitriol of copper to an alkali. We shall insert Mr. Clegg's description of the process.

‘Saturate two pounds of vitriol of copper, with a strong alkaline salt (American pot-ashes, when to be procured, are recommended.) The vitriol will take about an equal weight of dry ashes. Both the vitriol and the ashes are to be previously dissolved apart. When this proportion is mixed, well stirred, and suffered to stand a few hours, a precipitate will subside. Upon adding a few drops of the solution of ashes, if the mixture be saturated, the water on the top of the vessel will remain colourless; but if not, a blue colour will be produced; upon which add more ashes; there is no danger in its being a little over saturated with ashes. Take care to add the solution of ashes to that of vitriol by a little at a time, otherwise the effervescence which ensues will cause them to overflow the vessel: these four pounds of vitriol of copper and ashes will be equal to about the same weight of verdigris, and should be added to the other liquors of the dye, at different times, as is usual with verdigris.

‘The black, thus dyed, will be perfectly innocent to the goods, rather tending to keep them soft than corrode them, particularly hats, in which there is the greatest consumption of verdigris.

‘For those who are constantly using verdigris, it would be proper to have a vessel always at hand, containing a saturated solution of vitriol of copper; and another, with a saturated solution of ashes, ready to mix as they are wanted; for I find they do not answer so well if long kept.’

This account is, in many respects, unsatisfactory. The native vitriol differs materially in its strength, and the substances combined with it; so that in different situations, we should apprehend that the event would not be the same. If the common blue vitriol of the shops is employed, it appears entirely to contradict the author's reasoning on the subject; for he seems to think, that the copper is only useful in combining with the acid, and consequently enabling the iron to act more completely on the astringent vegetable matter. It will be obvious therefore, that in a simple combination of copper and vitriolic acid, this effect will be imperfectly obtained. We strongly suspect that he employed native vitriol, which is generally combined with iron and with earth. If however we wish to avoid the acid, there will be little occasion originally to employ it; for when the iron is minutely divided, the astringent matter of the vegetable will act on it, and produce a very perfect black colour. There was, we are informed, a series of experiments on this subject made by Dr. Bancroft, author of the *Natural History of Guiana*, and com-



communicated to the Royal Society. We know not why they were discontinued; but the improvements depended entirely on this principle. He used filings of steel, which are too dear for the present purpose: the experiment, we believe, will succeed equally well with the scales of iron, so frequently found in smiths' shops; and they may be easily triturated to any requisite fineness. If the attempts of the Society to procure a manufactory of verdigris in this kingdom do not succeed, we would recommend these hints to their attention: we by no means think that the end is accomplished by Mr. Clegg's communication.

The next article is the production of lady Moira. Its intention is to explain a method of making a coarse, but serviceable cloth, from the very refuse of flax, commonly called the 'Backings,' with other almost useless materials. A detail of this kind cannot be entertaining; but the benevolence of the attempt deserves the highest applause.

A very clear and intelligent account of the improvements in the diving-bell, by the ingenious, but unfortunate Mr. Spalding, is introduced under the title of Mechanics. It is well known that, from unforeseen accidents, he was himself the victim of his own ingenuity. The additional parts are however remarkably well adapted for the purpose; and the relation is candid and perspicuous; so that there is little doubt but that it may, in some future period, be a valuable instrument.

It was the object of the Society to procure an universal standard of weights and measures, entirely independent of any rule, but what every country and every climate might furnish. Mr. Hatton attempted to find this standard by approximation. The pulse of a healthy person is supposed to beat seventy-two strokes in a minute; if this be assumed, at first, as the measure of that space, a pendulum, which in the interval makes sixty vibrations, may be supposed to be the standard measure of a second. This measure is afterwards corrected; but, as the question was not completely solved, he received only part of the premium. An abstract of his attempt is preserved in this volume, and illustrated by a plate; so that we cannot be more particular on this subject. There is another mode of mensuration by the apparent revolution of any fixed star; but this can be only useful in one latitude, without corrections, which depend also on his machine.

The last article contains 'an Account of Experiments and Observations on different Species of Cotton, together with

some Remarks on their Culture,' for which Mr. Andrew Bennett received a gold medal in the year 1778. We do not meet with any thing sufficiently interesting to induce us to transcribe any part of it.

On the whole if, in some instances, the Society's attention has been directed to objects, which seem incapable of producing any national advantage, in others, their attempts are equally interesting and useful. We ought not to forget one part of the information in this volume, that from the seed of the white poppy it is possible to procure oil little inferior to olive oil; consequently a premium is offered for the cultivation of this flower. The late war, which for a time obstructed our commerce, has informed us of many valuable substitutes for foreign articles, in our own dominions. Among the rest, oils have been procured from many of our indigenous seeds, and sold for the olive oil of Spain and Italy, as well as for the oil of the spermaceti whale. If the Society extend their objects in this line, we know that they may receive valuable information on similar subjects.

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*Joannis Physicophili Specimen Monochologiae Methodo Linnaeana.*  
With Plates. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

Natural history is peculiarly adapted to distinction, when a number of species resemble each other. It will readily be allowed that this is the case in the new science of monochology; so that our author's specimen is at least useful, as well as new. This is however a lively satire, if a science so exact and dry can ever assume this appearance. It is intended to point out the difference of the various orders, and to show that they are almost equally useless or injurious. In this view, our author deserves commendation; but he forgets the old adage 'cucullus non facit monachum;' and his generical description has no other peculiarity. Indeed he fails as a natural historian, in many respects; and it seems probable, that he is not very conversant with the science. But he deserves our applause in the more extensive and useful character of a benevolent patriot, of the friend to man. Perhaps the form in which he has clothed his satire may render it less interesting and intelligible; but it has probably not been overlooked by an active and enlightened sovereign, whose influence and example has already discouraged these luxurious recluses. We can only wish, that it may be as extensive as it is spirited and judicious. The monkish orders appear, if possible, still more despicable, from the assertions, which have been defended in their public disputations. Some of these are subjoined, together with the titles of the works from which they are extracted.

John



*John Physiphilus's Specimen of the Natural History of the various Orders of Monks, after the Manner of the Linnæan System. Translated from the Latin, printed at Augsburgh. With Plates. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.*

**T**HIS is an accurate translation of the former work. It is introduced by a long preface, in which the Specimen is attributed to the baron Born of Vienna, an eminent natural historian. We imagine that a man who deserved that character, would not have put a genus, which is to fill an hiatus in the primates, among the brutes; nor would he have given a definition, which conveys no distinction. But perhaps these observations may be thought hypercritical: we ought not to expect science in a sprightly satire; or the accuracy of Linnæus, in the chastiser of the enormities of the monks. Though this may probably be allowed, yet, when satire assumes the veil of science, it should not be that of its semblance only; besides that the real philosopher finds it more easy to be exact, even in his triflings, than to be inconclusive or inaccurate.

The preface is rather a laboured Philippic against the manners of the monks, and the genius of popery. It is warm and severe, without intolerance or acrimony; but from the enlightened state which Europe now enjoys, we hope it is at present unnecessary. Instead of kindling into persecution, it is rather to be feared that we may sink into a torpid insensibility; or an indecisive scepticism.

We shall insert a specimen from the translation, as it will be more generally intelligible. But we ought to add, that in the original, the terms of natural history are preserved with care. There are few correspondent ones in English; and perhaps the translator has not always availed himself of those which we possess. The 'Camaldulan Monk' is selected only from its conciseness.

'The Camaldulan monk has a long beard stretching down to his breast: his head is shaved, bristly, and furrowed in a circular line: his tail is covered: He has shoes on his feet, with wooden soles: his tunic is white, of patch-work, coarse, and flowing down to his feet: his hood is rounded, and flexible: his sleeves are of equal width throughout, and wide: his scapulary is of the same length as his tunic, and bound about with a coarse white belt: his collar is close and sewn to his tunic: his cloak is white, wide, and embracing his whole body even to his feet. His waistcoat is woollen, and is worn instead of a shirt, with a prickly hair-cloth sometimes, scratching his back.

'The gait of the Camaldulan monk is austere, and his step slow.

'They howl in a body, seven times in the day, and at midnight, with a sound that is guttural, deep, and long-winded. At home he is silent. He is said to employ himself in contemplation. He vegetates in indolence, and very rarely goes out.

‘ He lives upon fish, eggs, and vegetables. Upon fast days he smears pulse and corn with oil. He drives away thirst with wine.

‘ When he goes out he puts off his wooden sandals, and puts on shoes.

‘ The lay brothers are bound about with a thong.

‘ The female does not differ from the male, except in her having her head veiled.

‘ This animal lives in mountains overgrown with wood.

‘ The Camaldulan monks follow the rule of Benedict, according to the prescription of one Romualdus, who dreamed, that he saw monks dressed in white tunics, ascend by a ladder into heaven, and admonished by this celestial vision, he changed the black covering of the Benedictines for a white one. This species became extinct in the provinces of the Austrian monarchy in the year 1782.’

## FOREIGN ARTICLES.

*Traité sur le Venin de la Vipere & sur quelques Poisons vegetaux. On y a joint de Observations sur la Structure primitive du Corps Animal différentes Experiences sur la Productions des Nerfs, &c. Par M. Felix Fontana. 2 Vol. 4to. Florence.*

WE have received considerable pleasure and information from these very intelligent and accurate volumes; but we cannot convey any adequate idea of either, in a Review. If our account is more than usually compressed, it must be attributed to our wish of giving the result of as many facts as the limits will contain. It is enough to observe, in general, that this volume is chiefly composed of decisive and well conducted experiments; that the reflexions and arguments are clear, accurate, and judicious; and that the author has considerably extended the bounds of physiology.

The poison of the viper, which is the great object of the first volume, has been treated of by Redi and Mead. The prejudices of a country, or the splendour of a name, cannot disguise deceptions; and it is no disgrace to either, to suppose that he has erred, since error is so easy, and frequently so unavoidable. Our author begins with a description of the structure of the teeth of the viper. He observes, that the injury is chiefly done by the canine, though the loose and tottering teeth seem also to supply the poison. It appears, in his opinion, chiefly to come through a canal within the tooth, though it certainly has been seen to flow down the outside. It is the yellow liquor flowing from the teeth which is so dangerous; and when the excretory duct of the bladder that supplies it, is tied, or the canal of the tooth obstructed, by urging the animal first to bite a stiff paste, his wound is no longer dangerous.

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The latter expedient, which is that of mountebanks, does not however constantly succeed. The poison, when inserted into a wound, is not deleterious to every animal. Leeches, snails, some kinds of serpents, &c. are not affected with it. Tortoises die slowly, and with difficulty, after having been bitten; and its own species are not hurt by the bite. Our author seems to think that this liquor serves an important purpose in the œconomy of the animal, as for instance, to assist its digestion. It is seemingly absurd, that any fluid should be supplied merely to do injury; and even the scorpion, and the water polypus, the most poisonous animal in the world to its prey, have no effect on insects of the same species.

M. Fontana next procured some of the poison, and examined it with accuracy. It was neither acid, alkaline, or saline, when viewed through a microscope. When tasted, for he dared to taste it repeatedly, it was neither pungent or acrid; it seemed like oil, but left an impression on the tongue, of torpor, somewhat resembling an astringency. In water it sinks to the bottom; and when they are mixed, the water is slightly white and turbid. It does not burn. When fresh, it feels viscid, and excites no inflammation in the flesh of animals: when old, it sticks like pitch. In the head of the viper it preserves its virtues probably many years: when dried, it has been found active after six months. Our author examines the several systems which have been imagined to account for the death of the viper; and finds them, with reason, defective. His opinion shortly is, that life consists in irritability, and that putrefaction destroys it. The great change in animals, bitten by the viper, is a general paralysis; consequently, the poison is highly septic. This opinion is also sufficiently consonant to his system of the poison being originally intended to assist the digestion of the animal. He supports these views with much ingenuity; but if we had room for our own observations we could show, that M. Fontana has been in sight of truth without obtaining it; and that he has raised a concomitant effect only to the dignity of a cause. His sentiments have however changed, for this first part is only a republication of a former edition; so that there is less reason to insist on them; yet we think they are nearer the truth than his subsequent opinion. The next pursuit of M. Fontana has a more immediate tendency to be useful, since it was to discover a remedy for the bite. The first substance tried was the volatile alkali fluor, recommended by Mr. Sage; or the spirit of sal ammoniac of the shops. When sparrows and fowls had been bitten, its application seemed useless; and to swallow it, injurious. To pigeons it was at least equally insignificant. Guinea pigs, in similar circumstances, received no certain benefit from the remedy; to rabbits it seemed injurious; to cats, an uncertain relief; to dogs, apparently useless; and to frogs, externally trifling, and internally hurtful.

The repeated bites of the same viper are nearly equally dangerous; but there is a period, different according to the strength and fury of the animal, at which its poison seems to be exhausted. If the bites are repeated in the same spot, the general effects are not so considerable as when different parts are wounded; but the local effects are more so. A slight rasure of the skin, without an actual wound, seems not to permit the poison to affect either rabbits or Guinea pigs; at least in such cases there is only a slight disease of the part, which is by no means mortal. If the skin be pierced through its whole substance, the poison produces its usual effect; but if this be avoided, it is not mortal, when applied to the cellular substance. When the wound is in the muscles, it is not always fatal; but when the poison is only applied to the muscular fibres, it is innocent. Our author pursues these experiments by trying the effects of the bite on different internal parts; but as the results are different in different animals, and none of them applicable to the human species, we shall not enlarge on a subject so disagreeable. It may be however proper to add, that the tendons were not affected by the poison; which is a strong proof of their not being sensible or irritable in their healthy state.

The author then resumes the subject of the first part, for this is the beginning of his new work, and gives a more particular description of the head and teeth, illustrated with plates, partly taken from Mead and partly from nature. He gives a more full account of the experiments by which his opinion of the nature of the poison was formed, and of the probable sources of some of Dr. Mead's mistakes. The change in the colour of the tournesol, observed by the doctor, M. Fontana finds is owing to a small quantity of blood mixed with the poison; and the floating bodies, which the microscope discovered, seemed to be a small portion of the saliva. The poison itself, accurately examined, seemed of a gummy nature; and, though an animal gum be a novelty in chemistry, yet the resemblance is too strong to suffer us to hesitate on the subject. It is indeed probable, that its chemical properties have very little effect in producing the deleterious consequences of the bite; but we must not reject, what proper experiments have demonstrated, because it is not supported by analogies. Our author very justly observes, that we have hitherto consulted books, rather than nature; and have joined in repeating fancies, till we have imagined them to be real. He next examines the poisons of bees, drones, wasps, and hornets: in these he finds a really acid principle, but in too small quantities to account for the effects of their bites. They have a more caustic taste than the poison of the viper; yet, on a chemical examination, they appear to be of the same kind, or to resemble a gum. If we are still alarmed at the idea, it may perhaps lessen our aversion to it, to employ, instead of gum and resin, the

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terms mucilage and oil. Though the poison of vipers and bees be very active, we can still suppose, that for the sake of the animals for whose use it is destined, that in its essence it is still more so; and that it is enveloped in a mucilage, to prevent it from being a poison instead of a salutary fluid. We may frequently find a viscid mucilage in animal fluids; for instance, in the saliva and mucus; and probably in purulent matter, if it be indeed a secretion. M. Fontana thinks the poison of these little animals equally fatal with that of the viper, if inserted in sufficient quantity; for the poison of the viper is sooner and more certainly fatal, in proportion to the size of the animal wounded. The disagreeable sensation which ants produce is, he thinks, from a real poison, of an acid nature. He has found it to be a true acid, viz. that of the air 'fixed, concentrated, deprived of its elasticity, and rendered liquid.'

The next attempt is to ascertain the quantity of poison which is fatal. About  $\frac{1}{100}$  part of a grain killed a sparrow; and four times as much a pigeon. From his calculation, which must be necessarily in some degree erroneous, it will require twenty vipers to kill an ox; and five or six to kill a man. It was of more consequence to determine the time required to produce the fatal effects, and the manner of the poison's acting. He found that it had not the peculiar local effect, viz. lividity and putrefaction, when the limb was amputated at the moment of the bite; but that, to produce this change, it required from 15 to 20 seconds. This is a very important step, as it seems to show us, that the action is not on the fluids or the nervous power of the part, but only in consequence of a prior effect on the origin of the nerves. Yet we find, that if but a minute elapsed, amputation of the wounded limb would not save the life of the animal. So quick is the operation of this fatal fluid, that after 25 seconds it was not successful: within that time, as we might have suspected from the preceding experiments, the animal was preserved by the operation. There is however a circumstance which may be considered as remarkable: if the pigeon was not saved by this expedient, its death was accelerated by it. Though in healthy birds, amputation brought on no sensible disorder, yet it might co-operate with the poison: or, as our author suspects, nature, who guards the constitution, might determine the poison to the part at first bitten, and overwhelm it with the whole force of the venom, which would be otherwise spent on more important organs. Death seldom occurs, unless there is a local disease of the part, which is not the mechanical or chemical effect of the poison, but probably a real effort of nature to overcome it.

When the venom was injected into the jugular vein, the death was sudden; but applied to the sciatic nerves, in different methods, no other effects followed, except those which were found to result from mechanical wounds. Though the poison, in small quantities, has no effect on the blood out of the body, yet, when injected, it blackens and coagulates the  
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vital fluid. This is entirely contrary to the opinion of Mead ; and it is still more so, to find that it is equally fatal in a part where every probable nervous communication with other parts has been previously interrupted ; but it is necessary to mention, that the same effects follow after the circulation has with equal care been destroyed. These experiments add a ' browner horror ' to the dark scene formerly before us ; yet something may be offered to explain it, if the necessity of attending to our author did not prevent us. From these and other experiments Mr. Fontana changes the opinion which he has delivered in the former part of the volume, and concludes, that the poison is fatal from its effects on the blood. It is remarkable, that this is the second change of opinion on this subject ; and that both were probably derived from experiment. Dr. Mead first thought that the effect was produced from coagulating the blood ; but experience showed that the poison mixed with this fluid, did not produce any change. By mixing larger proportions, M. Fontana concludes, that it really blackens the blood ; but, instead of coagulating, contributes to dissolve it. The coagulation however which ensued, when the poison was injected into the veins, must have arisen, in his opinion, from a subtle spirit in the blood, which escapes, in the experiment, out of the body. This we shall not enlarge on, for this very obvious reason, that the quantity, mixed with the blood to produce any change, was beyond comparison too great. The poison of ten thousand vipers could not have coagulated it in the degree in which it was found after the injection, if the concretion proceeded only from its chemical effects. Therefore, as we have already alleged, the question is in accumulated darkness ; and we shall now leave it with a few short reflections.

There is a great probability that the state of a nerve, and of the nervous influence, is very different in the large bundles from what it is in their divided state : their sensibility is much greater in the minute ramifications ; and the peculiar offices for which they are adapted, is only performed by the extreme branches. This may, in some measure, account for M. Fontana's failure ; but there is another more obvious source of error. The coats of the nerves are dense, and composed of matter resembling the simple solids. It is therefore probable, that in many of his experiments, the whole poison was exhausted on them ; and it is remarkable, that they were affected like the tendons, the cellular texture, and the more insensible parts of the body. At least his conclusion is invalidated by the event of an experiment, to which due weight has not been allowed. When all the vessels had been divided, as well as the throacic duct, the poison seemed to exert all its usual effects on the limb, and the animal died with its peculiar symptoms.

If these observations should reach M. Fontana, we recommend some farther trials, with proper limitations. It is surprising that they should have escaped him, who has discovered so much  
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ingenuity in detecting the errors of others, as well as his own. We can only repeat what we have already said, that this work is in general accurate and sensible; though confined to one subject, it conveys much curious information on several parts of the animal œconomy. It is unfortunately obtained at the expence of much pain to the several victims, and some injury to the feelings of humanity. Yet we shall see, in the future volume, that it has enabled us sometimes to restore health, even in desperate cases, and may contribute to the services of mankind, in circumstances which we cannot at present guess at.

*Vom Ursprung des Neger-Handels; or, of the Origin of the Negroe Slave-Trade. By Matthias Christian Sprengel. 8vo. Halle, (German.)*

PROfessor Sprengel proposes to publish a complete history of the Negroe slave-trade, from its rise to the present time; and the present publication may be considered both as the introduction to, and a specimen of, that larger work.

The scene of the slave-trade extends far beyond Guinea, though that coast furnishes the Europeans with the greater number of slaves for their American and West Indian colonies. The Portuguese, indeed, still procure slaves from their East-African settlements, especially Mosambique; and the French transport small numbers of slaves from Madagascar to Isle de France and Bourbon.

It is generally imagined that the Europeans were the first who taught the Negroes this cruel branch of trade; but the poor Negroes had already tasted of the hardest slavery long before the arrival of the Portuguese on their coasts. No barbarous nation has ever so far forgotten the rights and dignity of human nature, as these African Negroes. With them, friends or foes are alike reduced to slavery, whenever they have the misfortune of offending their lords, or falling into the hands of a stronger man. All Negroes are born slaves of their masters; by whom they are doomed to death or sale, not only for trifling offences, but from mere ill humour; and often to sale, merely to gratify their master's thirst after brandy. As far as their history can be traced, the northern neighbours of the Negroes, the Arabs in Morocco, were the first who purchased slaves of the Negroes. Ever since the year of Christ 990, the Moroccans had extended their conquests to the northern banks of the Senegal: and from that time there are continual traces of an intercourse between these two nations. By these conquerors the Arabic language, circumcision, the Koran, and some other rites of Mahometism, and even some sort of civilization, not yet entirely lost among the black tribes beyond the river of Gambia, were introduced among the Negroes.

The first account of the Negroe-trade of the Moors in Northern Africa, is to be found in the Nubian Geographer, page 8, of the Latin version. This trade was still carried on in  
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the fifteenth century, when the Portuguese began to establish new marts for the slaving trade on the coast; as appears from the frequent accounts of their first navigators. Even now, a bartering trade of horses against men, is continued between the Negroes and Moroccans; a trade, which the immense annual exportations of slaves by Europeans to America, have not yet stopped. In order not to lose this branch of trade, the Moroccans sell none but stone-horses to the Negroes on the Senegal.

The first rivals of the Arabs for the slaving trade, were the Portuguese, since 1445; whose preceding voyages were made merely in continuation of the war against the Arabs, whom king Alphonfus III. had expelled from his dominions. The kidnapping pursuits of the Portuguese were favoured by the papal donation of the new discovered countries; till prince Henry, who meant to improve the discovery in Africa to other purposes than merely for the extirpation of Mahometism, forbade the kidnapping to his navigators. Pope Nicolas V. in that famous bull, by which he granted the unknown world to the Portuguese and Spaniards, expressly permitted and ordered the Christians to reduce all infidels into slavery: an order zealously executed by both these nations. In the mean while, the Portuguese were advancing nearer and nearer to the countries abounding in gold; and discovered, in the progress of their navigation, many useful and valuable articles of trade. That of pepper, now found by them, gave the first shock to the East India trade, till then carried on by the Venetians. In order to procure plenty of pepper, (a spice, of which incredible quantities were consumed in those ages,) and of other merchandises, the Portuguese were obliged to cease kidnapping and hostilities, and to purchase slaves instead of carrying them off by force.

Since it has been carried on by the Europeans, this slave-trade has undergone but few great changes. It is still carried on, within its ancient limits, along the sea-coast, though it now reaches farther up into the inland countries of Africa; and the same articles of trade which had already been imported by the Arabs, are still eagerly sought for by the Negroes. Only the number of European traders and settlements has greatly increased, and the Portuguese have lost their monopoly on the coast.

Professor Sprengel divides the history of the Negroe-trade, carried on by Christians, into two principal periods, the first from 1443 to 1645; and the second, from 1645 to the present times.

The first period is the time of its increase, during which, not only its founders the Portuguese, but the English, the Dutch, and the French, dealt in Negroe slaves, though chiefly for the use and consumption of the Spaniards, and the sugar and tobacco plantations in the Brasils. During the latter period, these four nations were obliged to share that trade with the Swedes,



Swedes, the Danes, the Brandenburgers, the North Americans, and, since 1778, with the Spaniards. Their trade however still increased, not only by the Swedes and Brandenburgers ceasing their navigations to the coast of Guinea, but from the annual demand of a supply of more than 100,000 Negroe recruits for their own colonies. The author confines his relation of the first Negroe-trade to that carried on by the Portuguese and Spaniards.

Gonzalez was the first Portuguese who, in 1442, returned with Negroe slaves, purchased; instead of the Africans, who had, till then, been carried off by mere violence. But soon after, the Portuguese became better acquainted with the African regions, and their valuable productions. Prince Henry founded the first Guinea company; that settled factories in the fortrefs of Arguin, and got the exclusive privilege of trading with the Arabs. The trade soon increased; so that, in 1455, not less than seven or eight hundred Negroe slaves were annually exported to Lisbon. At length the Portuguese, in 1471, discovered the Gold Coast; and ever since, the intercourse between Portugal and Guinea was continued. The Portuguese endeavoured to exclude other nations from Guinea; whilst the rest of the European navigators were, in spite of papal bulls, and all the reports industriously spread of the pretended dangers of that coast, striving to get a share of that profitable gold trade. The discovery of the Gold Coast served, indeed, yet more to enlarge the sphere of the navigation of the Portuguese, than their slave-trade; but it forced them also to extend themselves on the coasts; and to settle colonies in Congo, Angola, and other places, which they had till then neglected. Prince Henry's colonies were enlarged by his successors: King John II. in 1492, expelled all the Jews to the island of St. Thomas, which had been discovered in 1471, and to other Portuguese settlements on the continent of Africa; and from these banished Jews, the black Portuguese, as they are called, and the Jews in Loango, who are despised even by the very Negroes, are descended. By these colonists, St. Thomas soon became a considerable place of trade, and valuable for its sugar plantations. Thirty years after their settlement, not less than one hundred and fifty-six thousand arrobes (of thirty pounds weight each) of sugar were exported; and the engines of sixty sugar works, turned by slaves. These Negroes were purchased in Guinea, Congo, and Manicongo, and the colonists had plantations furnished with from one hundred and fifty to three thousand Negroe slaves.

In the beginning of the sixteenth century, the Spaniards and Portuguese began to transport Negroes, for similar labours, to the West Indies and Brasils, by which the Negroe trade was rapidly increased. The Spaniards, on their first settling in the West Indies, immediately treated the natives of that part of the globe according to the pope's instruction; they divided them by families or districts among themselves, as slaves. The poor

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Indians were now forced to dive for pearls, to wash gold sand, and to work gold and silver mines for their new masters; they were often carried far from their native homes; and, in short, they were so miserably fed and used, that in a short time these countries were entirely depopulated. In order to supply that loss, the Spaniards carried off the other Indians, who were not yet subdued, by stratagem or force, especially from the Lucayan Islands. The Spanish court at last prohibited those violences; but the Spaniards soon found means for evading the orders of their court. They decried the Indians in Europe as the most sanguinary race of savages; on which Ferdinand repealed his former orders, and bade them carry off these cannibals by force from their native places, and to treat and sell them as slaves. With a great deal of pains and dangers, the Spaniards now carried away the number of labourers wanted for their exigencies, but soon found them too weak to support long and hard labours. Bishop Las Casas is generally thought to have been the first who advised the Spaniards to import slaves from Africa, in order to spare the Indians. But our author shews, that before that time, Moorish and even Negroe slaves were sent to America. Las Casas' merits consisted in saving South America from an entire depopulation: what before him had been already done by private Spanish individuals, he procured to be done by a general royal order, or he proposed Negroes instead of the few Moorish slaves, who had till then been sent to America. He also deserved well of the commerce of America, by procuring by his remonstrances, that the Negroe slaves, who before, like all other necessities, had been sent from Seville, or other Spanish harbours, were to be directly transported from Guinea to the West Indies; and that, of course, America was more expeditiously furnished with the labourers wanted. Las Casas' proposal was executed in 1517. The court of trade at Seville appointed 4000 Negroes to be annually transported to the islands of Domingo, Fernandina, Porto Rico, and Jamaica; and Charles V. granted the monopoly of this slave-trade to his counsellor and major-domo de la Bresa for eight years, who, in his turn, sold his grant for that time to some Genoese, for 25000 ducats. The trade of these farmers probably ceased with the term of the eight years, as the Genoese sold their slaves too dear, and as the Portuguese were become very jealous of the trade of other nations to Guinea.

The number of slaves annually exported from Guinea now rose from year to year. Besides those wanted by the Portuguese for their own settlements in Africa, or sold by them to the Spaniards in the West Indies, great numbers of Negroes were also wanted for the Brasils, which had been lately discovered. The importance of that fruitful country, which for a long time remained a place of exile, was not known till about the middle of the sixteenth century. Some of its forced colonists had imitated



tated there the management of the sugar plantations in St. Thomas and Madeira with such success, that both these islands lost their sugar trade, and the Portuguese were enabled to monopolise the slave trade. Towards the latter end of the sixteenth century, the Brasils annually received twenty-eight thousand negroe slaves from Angola only; and some of its planters are said to have been possessed of not less than ten thousand slaves, and eighteen sugar works. Even then they used to mark the slaves with hot irons. And they also employed Brasilians carried off by force from the inland parts of the country. The permissions for thus kidnapping and carrying off the natives into slavery, were openly sold by the Portuguese governors; and these licensed kidnappers fetched their commodities from the most inaccessible forests and wildernesses.

To the end of the sixteenth century, the Negroe slave-trade was carried on only by Portuguese and Spanish merchants, who fetched their slaves from the Portuguese settlements. When the Portuguese became subjects to Spain, under Philip II. they engrossed the whole Spanish Negroe-trade to themselves. Spain entirely ceased her trade to Guinea, and to the islands of Cape Verd; and from that time to the peace concluded at Pardo, suffered her colonies to be furnished with Negroes by other nations. John Hawkins, a dealer in slaves, got, in 1565, the first potatoes, for ship provisions, from the inhabitants of Santa Fé, in New Spain; he introduced the root into Ireland, whence it was farther propagated through all the northern parts of Europe.

In 1610, the Portuguese lost the most profitable branch of their Negroe trade, with the liberty of trading to the Spanish Indies, on account of the revolution of Portugal. As the Spaniards themselves could not trade to Guinea, on account of their war with Portugal, Dutch merchants offered to carry on that trade for them. The Dutch had traded with Guinea for gold ever since 1593; and whilst they were masters of the Brasils, they also carried on a considerable slave trade: but their proposals were declined by the chamber or court of trade, at Seville. In 1662, the crown contracted again for seven years with two Italians, of the name of Grilli, for slaves. This company of the Grilli purchased their slaves from the English, the Dutch, the French, and the Danes, who had then settled in Guinea. But this trade probably declined and ceased when the Spanish power was so exceedingly weakened towards the end of the last century.

The author has subjoined some additions: first, a minute account of the English settlements on the Gold Coast, and in Senegambia; the second, of the present price of slaves. Formerly a Negro slave was to be got so cheap as for a few yards of coarse cloth; and towards the end of the last century, the Negroes sold a full-grown Negroe slave for two or three quarts of brandy; but the price has since been greatly raised by the

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competition of European slave-merchants. That price depends on the peaceable or warlike disposition of the Negroe princes, and on the greater or smaller number of slaving ships. It is also greatly influenced by the nature of the European commodities, where the dealers never use to purchase slaves with any one single commodity, but always contrive to mix dear and cheap articles with a great deal of cunning and profit. The English are said to purchase at present an able full-grown slave, on the coast of Africa, for 23 or 24l. value, in commodities, though these are said to be in fact worth only about 18l. The slaving vessels retail their slaves again in America, at the rate of 50l. per head: but in larger parcels, comprising men and women, they may be got at the rate of 36l. per head. This, however, is to be understood of Negroes fit only for sugar works; for such as are fit for other sorts of work are paid for according to their skill; and in a scarcity of hands sometimes even at four times the price of ordinary Negroe slaves.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### P O L I T I C A L.

*Second Letter to a Country Gentleman. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.*

**T**HIS sensible writer, of whose former Letter to a Country Gentleman we gave an account in our last Review, proceeds to make farther observations on those political subjects, which have lately so much attracted the public attention. It has, he remarks, served the purposes of a faction to talk of a want of the confidence of the house of commons in the minister; but it is fit for honest men to consider what is to be the effect of a want of the confidence of the people in the representatives of the people. It is sincerely to be wished that such a consideration may at length be adopted by those who have been the abettors of the violent measures which reflect so much dishonour on the public spirit of the nation. In speaking of the late resolutions in the house of commons, the author declares, with a spirit of liberal indignation, that he could not submit to sit for one hour in that house, without moving to rescind those resolutions, as the only means of restoring to the house the confidence of its constituents, in which its dignity, and even its authority, consists.

After several judicious observations on the conduct of parliament, the author makes a transition to the affairs of the East India company, concerning which he affirms, that he cannot think of governing India by act of parliament, without scorn and contempt for the idea. However repugnant this sentiment may be to the hypothesis generally adopted on the subject of East India government, we are of opinion that, when deliberately considered, it will appear to be founded in good policy. In a country so remote, accustomed from the earliest times to a despotic



despotic administration, and contiguous to nations of a similar political temperament, that form of government which can be administered with the greatest vigour, energy, and effect, must doubtless be the most eligible. In the opinion of our author, such a government ought to be in the hands of one man, assisted by a council resident in India, in whom the most implicit confidence is to be reposed; and who shall be responsible for it in Britain, at the peril of his life and fortune.

*Mr. Burke's Speech, on the 1st December, 1783, on Mr. Fox's East-India Bill.* 8vo. 2s. Doddsley.

In this speech Mr. Burke takes a wide survey of the affairs of the East-India company, which he represents to be in a state of great disorder, through the rapacity and misconduct of the company's servants in the East. The facts upon which he proceeds being frequently unauthenticated, and appearing at least suspicious, if not manifestly marked with exaggeration, we cannot admit them to such a degree of credit as is necessary for rendering them subservient to the author's conclusions. The speech is obviously calculated rather to enforce the expediency of the bill, than to afford a candid representation of the management of the company's affairs in Asia; and, consistently with such a design, it is, like most of this ingenious author's orations, addressed more to the imagination than to the understanding. As if Mr. Burke had been sensible that the bill stood in need of the utmost support that could be obtained, he has artfully endeavoured to give it reflected merit, by concluding with a high panegyric on the right hon. gentleman who framed it. The speaker may, no doubt, maintain that those compliments proceeded from a source entirely unconnected with any view towards the success of the bill; but however well-founded the encomiums may be, we should have been more inclined to consider them as a tribute of personal esteem, did they not betray an attempt to impress the audience with partiality.

*A Reply to Mr. Burke's Speech of the 1st of December, 1783, on Mr. Fox's East-India Bill. By Major John Scott.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

We had occasion to observe, in our last Review, that major Scott appeared to be well acquainted with affairs in the East-Indies; and our opinion on that subject is farther confirmed by the present Letter. That the major avails himself of every opportunity of information, seems highly probable from his industry; for he has so carefully collated the copy of Mr. Burke's speech, as published by Mr. Doddsley, with that formerly printed in the news papers, that he affirms it has received great alterations, both in respect of matter and embellishment. In its improved state, the major hesitates not to pronounce it an artful, though a gross and glaring misrepresentation of all the events that have happened in India from

the year 1756 to the present time. Without entering upon a detail of the numerous parts of the speech on which Mr. Scott has commented, it is sufficient to inform our readers of what he affirms in general, viz. 'that from the first page to the last, he can detect insinuation without ground; assertion without proof; facts without evidence; language unwarrantably construed; unjust inferences; and unfair conclusions.'

*A Letter to the People of England, and, in particular, to the Electors of Westminster, concerning the Man of the People.* 4to. 1s. Debrett.

This pamphlet treats of the various political topics which have lately been so much agitated. The author's style is diffuse; but his observations in general have a degree of shrewdness. The chief object of his remarks is the *Man of the People*; whose conduct he traces from the origin of that title, amidst the jollity of some zealous partizans at a tavern, to the present time. The result of the enquiry, as conducted by this political chemist, is, that the Man of the People is destitute of loyalty, patriotism, public integrity, and even of sound abilities as a statesman.

*An Address to the Majority of the House of Commons.* 8vo. 1s. Flexney.

This Address is written with the view of exposing the duplicity of those who take the lead in the present opposition to government. The author points out the most striking instances, which prove their conduct to be influenced entirely by private considerations: and he recommends to the members of the house of commons to emancipate themselves from the authority of men who would sacrifice the interests of the nation to their own aggrandizement. The admonition is highly seasonable; nor can we suppose that a majority of the house of commons will persevere in that intemperate conduct, which must draw upon them the general censure of all who are animated with a regard for the constitution of their country.

*A Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt, from a Presbyterian of the Kirk of Scotland. To which is added, a short Epistle to William Pulteney, Esq.* 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

It redounds not a little to the honour of the minister, that his enemies, finding no member of the church hardy enough to attack his reputation, are obliged to have recourse to the kirk of Scotland. The kirk, in its turn, seems equally averse to the employment; and has furnished such a champion as betrays either his own inability, or the weakness of the cause. This Calvinist, in reality, has nothing of religion but the name; and when we say that he is equally void of political truth, we do no injustice to his character.—Subjoined to the Letter, is a short Epistle to William Pulteney, Esq. in which the author endeavours to refute the application, made by that



gentleman, of the principles of De Lolme. But this attempt is not more successful than the former; and for both these acts of political uncleanness, we cannot do better than recommend this *presbyterian* to be placed on the *stool of repentance*.

*A short commercial and political Letter from Mr. Joseph Price to the Right Hon. Charles James Fox, on the Subject of his Asiatic Bills, now pending in Parliament.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

Mr. Price begins with animadverting upon a clause in Mr. Fox's East India bill, prohibiting indiscriminately all monopolies at Bengal; a prohibition which he affirms would prove as pernicious, with respect to the general trade of Bengal, as laying open the trade to India would be to this country. He observes, that the present plan for supporting the home-made Bengal salt-trade, by excluding the importation of foreign salt, is the least oppressive to the people, and most productive to government, that ever was thought of. With respect to opium, he asserts, in defiance of the ninth Report, that this beneficial branch of trade could not be ruined more effectually than by laying it open. From Mr. Price's knowledge of India, his opinion concerning the proposed regulations of that country certainly merit attention; and, in a variety of particulars, independently of the political effects on Great Britain, he very much disapproves of Mr. Fox's bill.

*Observations on the Principles and Tendency of the East India Bills proposed by the Right Hon. Charles James Fox, and the Right Hon. William Pitt; with short Sketches of their Political Characters.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

The unconstitutional principles, and pernicious tendency, of the former of these bills, are here contrasted with the moderation and efficiency of the latter; as are likewise the characters of the two distinguished gentlemen by whom the bills were respectively introduced. The author's observations seem no less just than candid; and they preponderate greatly in favour of the character of Mr. Pitt.

*Considerations on the present Situation of Great Britain and the United States of North America, with a View to their future Commercial Connections.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

The author of this pamphlet endeavours to shew, in opposition to the plan recommended by lord Sheffield, that Great Britain ought not, upon the principles of good policy, to prohibit the American states from trading with our West India islands. In support of this proposition, he is at great pains to convince the public, that a free trade with America would be highly advantageous to this country, on many considerations. One of these relates to the building of merchant-vessels, which he says might be procured from America thirty per cent. cheaper than they can be built in Great Britain, even upon the supposition that the cordage, sails, and stores, should be exported

thence. Admitting this to be a fact, we would ask the author, whether it would be good policy in Great Britain thus to discourage ship-building in her own dominions? While America formed a part of the British empire, and the interests of both countries were closely united, the purchasing of American vessels, at the rate above mentioned, might well be considered as beneficial; but the revolution in the government certainly demands a change in the commercial system of Britain and America. There is likewise the strongest reason to apprehend, that the granting to the American States a free trade with our West India islands, would prove the means of increasing the naval power of America, and of diminishing that of Great Britain in an equal proportion. We must acknowledge that the author's arguments appear to us to be extremely problematical; and we cannot help suspecting the local attachments of a writer, who urges the propriety of liberal policy, in opposition to what seems the true interest of Great Britain in a matter of the highest importance.

*The Case of the East India Company, as stated and proved at the Bar of the House of Lords, on the 15th and 16th Days of December, 1783.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Gurney.

The Case of the East India Company is stated in this pamphlet with great perspicuity, as well as with genuine marks of truth. The gentlemen who appeared at the bar of the house of lords, in favour of the company and proprietors, could have only a very short time to prepare for so arduous an undertaking; yet, from the speeches now before us, we find that they acquitted themselves in such a manner, as no less merited general applause than the thanks, which they obtained, of their employers. The affairs of the company, though at present involved in some embarrassment, are proved to be in a state that could by no means either require or justify the violent remedies proposed by the East India bill; and the dangerous effects that would have thence resulted to the constitution of this country, are likewise judiciously remarked. The several speeches are distinguished from each other by an observable diversity in the mode of argument; but they agree in explaining the subject, and in enforcing their purpose, with clearness, consistency, spirit, and rhetorical address.

*Serious Reflections on a Dissolution of Parliament.* 8vo. 1s. Parker.

The author of this pamphlet argues strongly for a dissolution of parliament; and indeed there is much reason for thinking that the event would not be unacceptable to the majority of the nation.

*A new Whig Catechism.* 8vo. 6d. Debrett.

A sort of parody on some part of the church-catechism, calculated to expose the coalition-ministry to the scorn and hatred of the public.

*A Let-*



*A Letter to a Member of Parliament, in Defence of the Lords and Earl Temple, and a new India Bill.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Dixwell.

Honestus, the writer of this Letter, informs us that, for near sixteen years past, he has published more on the subject of the East India company, than any other man in the kingdom. Whether he has yet exhausted that subject, we know not; but his ardour for writing appears to continue so unabated, that he now seems to publish, without regard to any subject; for though he professes to write in defence of the lords, and earl Temple, he wanders so much from the point, that it is impossible for us to follow him.

*Thoughts on the present Mode of Taxation in Great Britain.* By Francis Dobbs, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

The author sets out with observing that, for several years, the exports of Great Britain have, in respect of quantity, been much upon the decline. While we enjoyed the exclusive trade of America, our manufacturers could charge a price proportionable to the expence of living, and yet be certain of a market; but now they must sell on equal terms with other nations, to have an equal market; and on lower terms to have a preference. But this, as the author remarks, is impossible, while the necessaries of life are higher than in other countries; an evil which he thinks can only be remedied by a change in our mode of taxation. Mr. Dobbs then proceeds to shew that the mode of taxation in this country is founded upon principles extremely erroneous and impolitic. The land-tax, he observes, is the most pernicious that could be devised; for, being a tax upon the necessaries of life, it strikes at the very root of our manufactures; as do likewise the taxes on malt, soap, candles, leather, salt, and other articles of general consumption. In a word, Mr. Dobbs condemns the whole system of British taxation, as repugnant to sound policy, subversive of justice, and equally inimical to the liberty and morals of the people.

Mr. Dobbs, in endeavouring to find a proper substitute for the numerous taxes which he would explode, is guided by a principle undoubtedly salutary and just. It is, that the taxes should be proportioned to the different abilities of those upon whom they are levied. He informs us, that after enquiring for the best criterion of a man's fortune, he thinks there is none so universally expressive as that of his house. For whether a man's wealth consists in land, in goods, or money, his house, in general, is in proportion to it.

This, he observes, is also a permanent, not a fluctuating object; and therefore taxation on it is neither liable to fraud nor charge.

Assuming it as a fixed proposition that a house is the best criterion, the author's next object is to make such a distinction between the different kinds of houses, that the rich shall pay largely, and the poor in a small proportion. The rule which Mr. Dobbs proposes for regulating this distinction is, that each

house should be taxed according to the number of fire-places it contains, but not in a regular proportion. The following are the rates which he specifies for the sake of illustration, viz. that a house with one fire-place, should pay annually one pound; with two, three pounds; with three, six pounds; with four, nine pounds; with five, twelve pounds; with six, fifteen pounds; with seven, eighteen pounds; with eight, twenty-one pounds; with nine, thirty pounds; with ten, forty; with eleven, sixty; with twelve, a hundred pounds; with thirteen, a hundred and fifty; with fourteen, two hundred; with fifteen, three hundred; with sixteen, four hundred; with seventeen, five hundred; with eighteen, six hundred; with nineteen, seven hundred; with twenty, a thousand; and for every hearth above twenty, five hundred pounds to be added.

For the different proportions above specified, Mr. Dobbs afterwards assigns reasons, drawn from the probable difference in the circumstances of the proprietors or inhabitants; and he points out the great advantages with which he thinks this tax would be attended. Supposing that a man of ten thousand pounds a year, of landed property, lives in a house with twenty fire-places, he pays a thousand pounds to the state, and for this annual tribute he buys all articles free of taxation. Our author observes, that in the very first instance, he saves more by the abolition of the land-tax than he pays by the proposed impost; and the same would be the case through the various gradations of society.

Without enumerating the various and great advantages of which Mr. Dobbs is of opinion this tax would be productive, we shall only inform our readers, that he means not by his plan to deprive the revenue-officers of their subsistence; for he proposes that they should be allowed pensions for life, equal to the fair profits of the place abolished.

The mode of taxation proposed by Mr. Dobbs, is doubtless recommended by its simplicity, but is liable to many and great objections; and therefore, though the author may deserve praise for his good intentions, we cannot entertain any expectation that ever the plan will be adopted.

*Considerations on the Defects of Prisons, and their present System of Regulation. By Sir G. O. Paul. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.*

This small treatise was originally intended for the use of the county of Gloucester; but, at the desire of many respectable friends, Sir G. O. Paul has been induced to enlarge his plan, with the view of procuring a general reform of the prisons in all the counties of the kingdom. This laudable design is executed by the author with a precision and perspicuity that do honour to his understanding. He first considers how far the spirit of the law of England implies a principle of discrimination, and an attention to humanity, in the various sentences to imprisonment. Secondly, how far the statutes have positively enjoined such a principle and such an attention. In the



the third place, he remarks what prisons ought to be; in the fourth, he considers their actual state. After investigating these topics, the sensible author concludes with some observations calculated to excite the public attention to a general reform of the prisons. The zeal and industry which he discovers for the improvement of the national police, in a matter of so much importance both to humanity and good government, merit the warmest applause; and we hope to see so benevolent and judicious a plan rendered effectual by legislative authority.

*The Heads of a Plan for the raising the Money for maintaining Paupers, by a new Method.* 8vo. 1s. Faulder.

Several benevolent gentlemen have, of late years, favoured the public with different plans concerning the regulation of the poor. This part of our domestic polity, so essential to the happiness of a state, and so interesting to the feelings of every humane mind, is universally acknowledged to be extremely defective, and to require the most serious attention. The author of this pamphlet considers the subject under three heads. In the first place, he points out the various deficiencies and incongruities of the present establishment relative to the poor: in the second, he gives the outlines of the plan he proposes; and in the third, he exhibits, by a comparative view, the superiority of the regulations suggested. Our limits not permitting us to attend the author through all the parts of his plan, we shall only mention those of the greatest consequence. In order to provide for the maintenance of the poor, he proposes, previously, that the wages of all servants, labourers, manufacturers, or handicraftsmen, should be fixed by act of parliament, in the same way as those of weavers, taylor, &c. This being done, he advises that certain stoppages should be made out of the wages of each, in proportion to their different situations; and that the sum, thence arising, should be placed in the public funds, as a provision for their support in time of sickness or old age. Regulations respecting the poor have now so long been agitated, that we wish to see some effectual improvement introduced with all possible speed. The subject is complicated and arduous; but, from the rational hints which have been suggested by different writers, a system might be formed, if not the most perfect, at least infinitely less exceptionable than that which at present subsists.

## P O E T R Y.

*Speech to the Sun of the Political Hemisphere, by a fallen Angel. Embellished with a beautiful Frontispiece.* 4to. 6d. Stockdale.

This Speech is a parody on Satan's Address to the Sun, in Milton's *Paradise Lost*. The Speaker, or 'the fallen Angel,' is supposed to be Mr. Fox. How far the sentiments in the original, and in the parody coincide, the reader will see by the following specimen:

‘ O! thou that with the royal favour crown’d,  
 Look’st from the treas’ry chamber, like the head  
 Of this new ministry; at whose approach,  
 The desp’rate seizers of mens’ charter’d rights  
 Hide their diminish’d heads—to thee I call,  
 But with no friendly voice, and add thy name,  
 O P—tt! to tell thee how I hate thy sight,  
 That brings to mind from what high state I fell—  
 How glorious once in ministerial sphere!  
 Till overstretch’d ambition threw me down,  
 Warring in p—rl—t against the k—g:  
 Ah wherefore! he deserv’d no such return  
 From me, whom he created what I was,  
 In his bright cabinet; and with his gift  
 Upbraided none; nor was his service hard—  
 What could be less than give him fit respect,  
 The easiest recompence; and def’rence pay,  
 How due!—Yet all his good prov’d ill in me,  
 And wrought but malice. Lifted up so high,  
 I ’sdeign’d subjection, and thought one step higher  
 Would set me highest, and in a moment clear  
 Th’ immense demands of endless creditors,  
 So burthensome, still paying, still to owe.  
 Oh! had his powerful destiny ordain’d  
 Me some inferior placeman, I had stood  
 Then happy: no unbounded hope had rais’d  
 Ambition.’

This is one of the smartest strokes of satire, which have been occasioned by our present political dissensions.

*An Epistle to the Right Hon. Lord John Cavendish, late Chancellor of the Exchequer. By Miss Ryves. 4to. 1s. Doddsley.*

The author of this Epistle has paid her tribute of applause to the late chancellor of the exchequer, in a strain of very respectable poetry. In the latter part, having avowed her own sincerity, she modestly adds:

‘ Yet while I scorn the flatterer’s abject part,  
 His base ambition, and his baser art,  
 Flush’d with a Briton’s glowing warmth, I feel  
 My bosom burn to hail the patriots’ zeal,  
 And, fir’d with ardour, would the lyre command  
 To sound their praise thro’ an admiring land,  
 Had heaven bestow’d a genius for the task,  
 And numbers lofty as such praises ask:  
 But from a woman’s trembling voice in vain  
 Still feebly falters the majestic strain,  
 Which to the bard’s deep-sounding tones belong,  
 To the rich melody of Mason’s song.’

*The Fourth Satire of Persius imitated, and much enlarged on, in Application to the Right Hon. William Pitt. 4to. 1s. Bladon.*

These imitations are so trifling or remote, and the enlargements



ments so copious, that the spirit of Persius is extinguished in the dulness of the rhapsodist. The execution is likewise not more weak and unpoetical than the design is inconsistent with morality. It is neither folly nor vice, but wisdom and virtue, that undergo this author's reprehension. He delineates youth, as a crime against the state; and transcendent abilities, as unconnected with personal merit. In short, he has mistaken both the shafts and the object of genuine satire; and of this it is our duty to inform him, even at the hazard of his resentment, so directly intimated in the following line.

'Beware, Reviewers! *least* I break your pates.'

*The Voluntary Exile. A Poetical Essay.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Scott.

This is said to be an allusion to Juvenal's third Satire; but as unlike that author, as the preceding article is to Persius. From these two productions, one would be inclined to think, that some school-boys, in a ramble to Parnassus, have got intoxicated with the springs of Helicon, and are now disgorging their debauch upon the public.

*The Political Remembrancer. A Poem in Hudibrastic Verse.* 2s. Maclellan.

A more despicable piece of doggrel than this Remembrancer, never was consigned to oblivion.

*A Monody upon the Death of Lord Ashburton.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Becket.

A tribute of gratitude or esteem; but not dictated by the elegiac Muse.

*Peace, a Poem; humbly addressed to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, on his taking his Seat in Parliament.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

'May it please your royal highness, not with more personal respect and becoming humility than real regard, I beg leave to express my most grateful sense of your royal highness's great condescension in the acceptance of the following poem. Like the ancient Persian habit, plain, simple, and unadorned, it will shew itself how unequal to this honour; yet the greater will appear your princely encouragement to science and literature, in patronizing so inferior a work, which has nothing but its sincerity to recommend it.'

Thus begins the Dedication to this curious poem, the concluding part of which seems to intimate, that his royal highness's encouragement of literature will appear evident from his patronizing a performance unworthy his attention: and as the author with great modesty chooses to compare it to the ancient Persian habit, a comparison which we do not much like, we hope his candour will excuse our addressing him in the words of Lear to the ill-apparelled Edgar: 'I do not like the fashion of your garments; you say they are Persian attire, but let them be changed.'—*Verbum sat sapienti.*

On

On the next section, where our author talks of 'truly unvariable unity,' we shall pass no comment. We know not indeed well what he means; but unity, whether domestic or civil, is now a topic too serious to be jested with.

Though the Dedication is sufficiently obscure, it falls infinitely short of the poem itself in that respect; witness the following lines:

'Ere long, some good, some lovely fair  
Shall to thy soul sweet bliss convey;  
The steady shaft flies through the air,  
While the light pinions quiv'ring play.'

The prediction is extremely kind, but unfortunately the last lines are totally inexplicable. No less so is the ensuing prophecy:

'Thou too shalt mark the modest vi'lets bloom,  
Which scents the zephyrs wings, yet hides its head;  
Oft from the foaming steed shalt placid come,  
'T'inhale its sweetness with delighted tread.'

We allow that to be *placid* after a very hard ride is a grand idea, and fit only to be applied to one of royal birth; but how the *bloom* of a violet can scent the air, and that bloom be perceived where its head is concealed; or how even the feet of royalty itself can obtain delight by inhaling its sweetness, we cannot possibly conjecture. As the quotations we have given shew to what a height sublimity is carried in some passages, we can assure the reader simplicity is no less conspicuous in others.

—quantum vertice ad altum,  
Tantum radice ad Tartara tendit.

For instance; some infants introduced to celebrate the prince's beneficence,

'Stretching their little arms, lisp—is't that he?

Yes, my dear babes, 'tis *him*, she cries.'

This is 'founding the very base-string of humility!' Can any thing be more simple? more consonant to the Doric idiom? or can any farther extract be required to justify our opinion?

The following passage from Horace is subjoined to the dedication.

'Satis superque me benignitas tua  
Ditavit.'

Whether it is inserted as a testimony of the author's classical knowledge, or as an acknowledgement for favours received, we know not: if the latter, as the dedication seems to intimate, we suppose the man, though not the poet, was entitled to protection. Otherwise we think he had reason to expect a similar answer to that which Jehu gave the messengers of Joram: 'What hast thou to do with *peace*? turn thee behind me!'

\* *Spem*—



\* *Spenser's Fairy Queen, attempted in Blank Verse, With Notes, critical and explanatory.* 8vo. 1s. Egerton.

Readers of different complexions will pass a very different judgment on this performance. These who are fond of perspicuity, and a modern style; who cannot bear the impediments thrown in their way by obsolete words and obscure phrases, will probably approve the undertaking; but those who are charmed with the magic numbers of Spenser, and think the Gothic structure of his rhythm adapted to the subject, will certainly object to the attempt. This publication contains only the first four cantos.

*Fashion; an Ode, With other Poems.* 4to. 2s. Doddsley.

This publication consists of odes, a little elegiac poem excepted. The first is written after the Greek model; and as regularly divided into strophe, antistrophe, and epode, as any of Pindar's. The mode of composition, and the subject, which severely arraigns modern follies, are of course oddly contrasted. We find in it a few reprehensible expressions, which might easily have been avoided; but, on the whole, the poem is entitled to approbation for its numbers, spirit, and imagery. The second, which considers the vicissitude of pleasure and pain as congenial to the state of man, is of inferior merit; though the forcible recollection of the beautiful ode began by Gray, and completed by Mason, on the same subject, may make us too fastidious. A mock turtle, introduced at the table of a Bristol alderman, just after he had feasted on a real one, would probably be pronounced an insipid dish; though at another time, it might have acquired a different appellation. The third, to Retrospection, bears likewise some resemblance to Gray's ode on a distant view of Eton College. The pleasing melancholy which possesses the mind on recalling those scenes which delighted us in our infant years, is feelingly described in the following lines:

' In vain with aching sight I try  
The future to pervade;  
No straggling beam of Hope is nigh  
To light me thro' its shade.  
Ah! then permit me to review  
The peace my youthful moments knew;  
The peace I ne'er must know again;  
The peace, which too refin'd to cloy,  
Possession calls consummate joy,  
And Mem'ry joyful pain.'

' To Retrospection's piercing eyes,  
In sunshine painted gay,  
The scenes of former times now rise,  
And now in mists decay.'

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\* The first Canto was published in 1774, and reviewed in December. See Crit. Rev. vol. xxxviii. p. 469.

My

My native cottage there I see,  
Where in thy lap, Simplicity !  
My guiltless childhood slept or play'd.  
In yonder fields, of thought devoid,  
Or else with pleasing thoughts employ'd,  
How often have I stray'd ! — —

' Ah ! happy view of happy years !  
When Hope upon me smil'd,  
Attended by her gay compeers,  
Young Health, and Vigour wild :  
When Fancy wav'd her magic wand,  
And instant at her high command,  
In all the rainbow's colours drest,  
A thousand Pleasures o'er my head  
Their variegated plumage spread,  
Or flutter'd on my breast.'

The last ode, addressed to Beneficence, is likewise not destitute of merit, though scarcely equal to the preceding. None of them are defective in point of harmony and animation ; and the author, though not a first-rate poet, soars far beyond mediocrity.

*Summer Amusements, or Miscellaneous Poems. By William Burnby, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Doddsley.*

Amidst the fashionable insipidity of a watering-place, this farrago may deserve the name of Amusement ; but in the closet, we only find the semblance of poetry and of humour. The substance seems to have been far removed from our modern Ixion, who hath grasped a cloud instead of a goddess. We may be again told

' Be dull no more, let justice, candour plead,  
Assent for once to an impartial deed.'

Really, Mr. Burnby, we never felt advice more forcibly ; and, whatever faults may be laid to our charge, we are convinced that, in the present case, we deserve due credit for our impartiality.

## M E D I C A L.

*A serious and friendly Address to the Public, on the dangerous Consequences of neglecting common Colds and Coughs, so frequent in this Climate : containing a simple, efficacious, and domestic Method of Cure, necessary for all Families. By a Gentleman of the Faculty. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.*

The appearance of the title was questionable, as it seemed a prelude to a quack medicine ; but the pamphlet is really the production of a sensible and benevolent man, anxiously wishing to warn mankind against a dangerous and delusive enemy. He mentions the different methods of relieving a common cold ; and the only peculiarities which we have remarked are, an exuberant complaisance to every author he has quoted ; and a  
timid



timid caution in the use of almost all the different remedies recommended. We suspect that the author is rather a valetudinarian than 'a Gentleman of the Faculty.'

*An Enquiry into the Nature and Cause of that Swelling in one or both of the lower Extremities, which sometimes happens to Lying-in Women. By Charles White, Esq. F.R.S. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. in Boards. Dilly.*

The author, in this sensible little tract, describes a disease, which, though not dangerous, is painful and troublesome. He supposes it owing to the stagnation of the lymph, and the retention of that fluid in the absorbing vessels. We think this opinion highly probable, but the remote cause is obscure and uncertain. It seems to arise, he observes, from a rupture of the lymphatics in the time of labour, in consequence of the pressure of the child; for when the wound is again healed, the cicatrix may contract, or entirely destroy the diameter of the tube, and occasion a stagnation in the parts below. Mr. White is certainly mistaken in this account; for if it was true, the attack would not be sudden, the swelling would begin in the lower part of the limb, and the pain occur in the second, rather than in the first stage. This subject is illustrated by some cases, which fully evince that the disease is not owing to a metastasis of the milk, to the deposition of any acrid matter, or the obstruction of the lochia. The remedies are rather more numerous than a disorder so safe seems to require; but they are well adapted to it; and the whole is illustrated by three plates of the lymphatic system, taken from Mr. Hewson.

In the subsequent part of the work, our author disapproves of the custom of drawing the breasts, when the mother does not purpose to suckle her child. It is very certain that this practice is always unnecessary, and frequently hurtful; and we can add our own testimony to that of Mr. White, that it may be safely omitted. On the whole, this pamphlet will by no means diminish the author's reputation: we wish that he had not so carefully endeavoured to support it by a long list of titles added to his name. We may be allowed to suggest, that many of the institutions derive more honour from Mr. White than they confer on him; and to accumulate every trifling distinction, must at least show, that trifles will make some impression on the mind.

#### D I V I N I T Y.

*The Clergyman's Companion in visiting the Sick. A new Edition, corrected and enlarged. 8vo. 3s. Faulder.*

This collection has been so much esteemed, that it has passed through eight editions. It was now become scarce; and therefore it was thought proper to re-print it. The rules for visiting the sick, are extracted chiefly from the works of bishop Taylor. The occasional prayers are taken from the devotional tracts of bishop Patrick, Mr. Kettlewell, and other pious divines. In this edition, the antiquated style of those writers is

cor-

corrected and improved; at the same time, a spirit of rational piety, and unaffected simplicity, are carefully preserved.

The offices of public and private baptism, though no ways relating to the visitation of the sick, are retained; as, in the present form, they will be convenient for the clergy, in the course of their parochial duty.

*A Sermon preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in the Abbey-Church, Westminster, on Friday, January 30, 1784. By Richard, Lord Bishop of Landaff. 4to. 1s. Evans.*

In the former part of this discourse, his lordship states and considers the different sentiments of divines, relating to the providence of God: first, as simply denoting foresight; secondly, as exerting a continued influence; and thirdly, as consisting in a pre-disposition of all events. His observations on these notions are liberal and judicious. He observes, that all our efforts are baffled, when we would explore the nature of God's existence, or the mode of his operations; yet he thinks, that a single page of the Gospel conveys to us more knowledge concerning the attributes of God, and our relation to him, than all the volumes of philosophy, which unassisted reason ever produced. He accordingly remarks, that several passages of Scripture will not suffer us to believe, that all sublunary events are irreversibly fixed from the creation of the world; or that our God is the God of Epicurus, exercising no superintendency over the inhabitants of the world. He adds:

'I might now pass on to apply these general observations concerning Providence to the particular occasion of this day's meeting: but I forbear; for I dare not say, as some men said, that God was on their side, when they imbrued their hands in the blood of their king, and subverted the constitution of their country, because their attempts were attended with success; nor dare I affirm, with others, that the domestic evils which the nation suffered during the usurpation, were evident proofs of God's displeasure at the usurpers. For what is this but in our rash and short-sighted zeal to make the supreme Governor of the Universe a partisan in our disputes, an abettor on one side or other of what is wrong? We cannot fathom the depth of God's councils: but from all his dispensations we may learn wisdom for the conduct of life. From the disaster which we this day deplore, kings may learn the danger of governing contrary to law, and even of tenaciously contending for all the rights of their predecessors, when the circumstances and opinions of a great nation demand from them unusual concessions: and the people, on the other hand, may learn the danger of supporting any set of men, or even either house of parliament, in their attempts to infringe the established prerogative of the crown, lest in redressing the grievances incident to monarchy, they fabricate for themselves the tenfold fetters of republican tyranny.'

This



This is a just and pertinent reflection, and affords the best argument, that can be adduced, for the observance of the 30th of January.

In the latter part of his discourse, his lordship makes some remarks on the present situation of our public affairs; and observes, that, humanly speaking, there is no cause for our despondency; that our commerce will soon expand itself into all its former channels; that the property of individuals, composing the nation, is at least six times greater than the national debt; that in short, we are still a great and powerful people; and would still become greater and happier, provided all parties would take the most prudent measures to heal our divisions, to increase our numbers, and to amend our morals.

## M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

*A familiar Address to the Curious in English Poetry: more particularly to the Readers of Shakspeare.* 8vo, 1s. 6d. H. Payne.

This is supposed to be an address from the author of the 'Observations on the three first Volumes of English Poetry,' and 'the Remarks on the last Edition of Shakspeare.' His petulance and illiberality will justify every mode of attack; and his want of candour and accuracy expose him to every shaft. In the present work, he is supposed to confess his errors, and to apologise for them, in his own peculiar style; and this method might have produced much lively and just satire, if it had been managed with skill and temper. We are sorry to observe, that the present author is too angry to wield this weapon with success; but we can find an ample apology for him, if he is but remotely connected with those who have smarted from the lash of this Therites. We have already detected some of his mistakes and plagiarisms: we have noticed those errors of the heart, which deserve the severest and most unqualified censure. But his own reflections will probably, at some future period, be a worse punishment than even his enemy would choose to inflict.

*D. Junii Juvenalis et A. Persii Flacci Satiræ expurgatæ: in Usum Scholarum. Adduntur Juvenali Annotatiunculæ Lud. Pratei et Jos. Juventii. Subjicitur Persio, Interpretationis Loco, Versio Brewsteri, cum Notis.* 8vo. 5s. Dilly.

This edition of Juvenal and Persius is calculated for the use of schools; and on this account, all indelicate passages are omitted. The articles which it contains are, I. The Preface. II. The Life of Juvenal by Juventius. III. The Life of Juvenal by Suetonius. IV. The Life of Persius. V. The Satires of Juvenal, with the Notes of Prateus (Dezprez) the editor of the edition in usum Delphini, &c. VI. Fragments of Sat. vi. and ix. VII. The Satires of Persius. VIII. The Notes to Persius from Juventius. IX. Brewster's Translation of Persius. X. Dr. Johnson's London; or Imitation of the Third Satire of Juvenal. XI. Dr. Johnson's Vanity of Human

man Wishes; or Imitation of the Tenth Satire of Juvenal. XII. Smith's Tables of Roman Money, reduced to Pounds Sterling.

The preface displays the editor's taste and learning. The notes are selected from the copious annotations of Præteus and Juvenius; and judiciously abbreviated. Brewster's translation of Persius is much more accurate than that of Dryden; and is a useful comment on this obscure satirist. If any other more familiar interpretation should be desired, the young student may consult a translation, in English prose, by Dr. Thomas Sheridan, published in 1739. It should be observed by the reader, that Persius, though placed after Juvenal, is prior in time to that writer, and consequently adapts his allusions to a more early period. Persius died in the reign of Nero, 62 years after the Christian æra, aged 29. Juvenal is supposed to have written some of his Satires about the year 85; and others, as late as the year 120; under Domitian, Nerva, Trajan, and Adrian.

*Variétés Dramatiques; ou Recueil de Comedies et Tragedies. Le tout Tiré des plus celebres Auteurs Francois. 12mo. 4s. Longman.*

This is a collection, for the use of schools, from Moliere, Voltaire, Racine, and Corneille; but we cannot highly commend the choice. Those which we have always considered as the most interesting pieces of these authors are omitted. We have not *Britannicus*; we have not the *Misanthrope*, or the *Cid*. It must however be allowed, that if those which have been ranked among the most excellent are omitted, nothing very trifling or improper is introduced.

*A Letter to Philip Thicknesse, Esq. in Reply to a Charge brought by him against a noble Earl of Great Britain. 8vo. 1s. Rivington.*

This Letter relates to a charge brought by Mr. Thicknesse against a certain nobleman. The charge, if not groundless, appears to have been extremely frivolous; and therefore the defence, if any were necessary, must be acknowledged sufficiently competent.

*Breslaw's last Legacy; or, the Magical Companion, &c. 8vo. 1s. Moore.*

The last Legacy of a person now living! but deception, we know, is inseparable from legerdemain. It is unnecessary to say any thing farther of this Magical Companion.

*The Air Balloon; or, a Treatise on the Aerostatic Globe. 8vo. 1s. Kearsley.*

A whimsical display of the advantages which may be derived from the invention of the Air Balloon.

